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## Art. I.—CUBA AS IT IS IN 1854.

POPULATION OF CUBA—ARMY—NAVY—RAILROADS—TELEGRAPHS—EDUCATION  
—LITERATURE—ADJACENT ISLANDS—PRODUCTIONS, ETC.

CUBA, the Queen of the Antilles—"la siempre fiel isla de Cuba," as it is grandiloquently styled in all official Spanish documents—has of late become, again, an object of peculiar and highly exciting interest. And just at this moment, too, we have, from the Havana press itself, stamped with the official sanction of His Excellency, the *Gobernador Superior y Capitan-General* of the island, the Marquis de la Pezuela, a new work, as if to enlighten us in regard to the precise whereabouts of that much-coveted gem of the ocean. It is entitled *Compendio de Geografia fisica, politica, estadistica y comparada de la Isla de Cuba*, and is from the pen of Don José Maria de la Torre, a distinguished member of the *Real Sociedad Economica* of Havana.

One would hardly think that a work of the above title was necessary for the information of the American public, at least, after so many such have been written, and when so many of us are constantly visiting the island. Cuba is no *terra incognita*; and as we have already, in the pages of the *Review*, given several elaborate descriptions of its geography, we shall, in the present article, confine ourselves to other subjects embraced in the volume before us.

The present population of Cuba, according to Señor Torre, is 1,050,000, as officially returned, though he thinks 1,500,000 to be nearer the truth. Of the 1,050,000, 1,009,000 are comprised in the fixed population of the island, the rest being transient. Of the fixed population, 501,988 are whites; 176,647 free colored; and the remaining 330,425 are slaves. The transient white population being 40,940; the entire white population of the island is 542,928; and the entire black population 507,072.

Divided according to nationalities, the white population of

Cuba is as follows: Natives of Spain, 90,000; of the Canary Islands, 25,000; of France, 3,000; of England, 1,000; and of North America and other countries, 3,000; leaving more than 400,000 as natives of the island.

The area of Cuba, including its adjacent appendages, being estimated at 3,973 square leagues, we have a density of population equal to 254 inhabitants to the square league, or 29 to the square mile. Compared with the United States, the population of Cuba is more dense than that of Maine, Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Florida, Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, Arkansas, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Iowa, Wisconsin, or California; also more dense than that of any one of the Hispano-American States of America, including Brazil.

Ethnographically considered, the races of inhabitants found at present on the island are the Caucasian, African, American, and Mongolian. In the early periods of Cuban history, the Spaniards of pure Castilian stock were the predominant race, owing to the singular fact that Spain, in its short-sighted policy, actually forbid\* any but Castilians to emigrate to the island; but at present, as is well known, the industrious Catalans, and the laborious natives of the Canaries, predominate in all parts of the island. Since the commencement of the present century, the French, impelled by the revolution in St. Domingo, have occupied chiefly the jurisdictions of Güines, Cuba, Saltadero, San Antonio, and Sur del Mariel, giving by their industry and superior intelligence a most powerful impulse to agriculture, and especially to the cultivation of coffee. The Anglo-Saxons have settled themselves chiefly in Matanzas, Cardenas, and in Nuevitas and Baga, which they colonized. The few Germans and Italians found in the island are devoted entirely to commerce.

Negroes from Africa were first introduced into Cuba in 1524; but, from causes other than climatic, the multiplication of the race has never corresponded with what might have been reasonably expected. The race has, according to most accounts—though this is steadily denied by the Spaniards—been greatly diminished by the cruel treatment of masters. Be this as it may, it is certain that millions of negroes have been introduced into the island as slaves from Africa since 1524, and that now its slave population is only little more than half a million.

The Cubans divide the negroes of the island into three classes: the *bozades*, those too recently arrived to understand the Spanish language; the *ladinos*, those speaking the language; and the *criollos*, those born in the island.

The African nations that furnish Cuba with slaves are the following:—

\* M. Torre: *Geografía de Cuba*, p. 53.

1. The *Mandingos*, who occupy the greater part of Senegawbia, divided into *Mandingos proper*, *yolopes*, and *fulaces*. These are the most intelligent, being more or less imbued with the Arabic civilization. Most of them can write in Arabic, and are esteemed for their knowledge of various branches of industry.

2. The *Gangôes*, who inhabit the coast from Cape Palmas, south of the cordillera of Kong. These have various names, and are remarkable for their fine physical condition.

3. The *Minas*, who come from the Gold Coast.

4. The *Lucumies*, from the Slave Coast, but who, it appears, are originally from Soudan. These constitute the greater number of the Cuban slaves, and are distinguished by marks or brands on their cheeks. They are abundantly able to labor, but are indomitable, and much addicted to suicide—to hanging themselves—*propensos al suicidio—ahorcarse*.

5. The *Carabalies* of the kingdom of Benin. These bear different names, and are distinguished by having their teeth cut in the form of lances or spears.

6. The *Congos*, who are from Congo; and lastly,

7. The *Macuaes*, found in Mozambique, and principally in the interior.

The negroes called *criollos* are distinguished into those born in town, and in the country, the latter being called *Criollos de campo*, and have a language and manners peculiar and more rustic. The copper-colored, or American race of Cuba, still existing there in very small numbers, are considered by Señor Torre to be the true descendants of the aborigines found on the island when first visited by Columbus. This, however, is disputed by some authorities, among whom, we believe, is Humboldt. They are found chiefly in Carey, Santa Rosa, Tiguabos, Tiawiba, Tijuani, and in Holguin. As late as 1845, they preserved all the privileges conceded to them by the laws of the Indies. Since 1847, the *Yucatecos*, or natives of Yucatan, have been introduced into the island.

Of the Mongolian race, none were seen in Cuba prior to 1847, except an occasional sailor from the coast of China. Since that time the introduction of Asiatic colonists has commenced from China. Up to the present time there have arrived some 6,000. They are introduced by contract, generally as field laborers, for a term of years; but what the precise terms of the contract are Señor Torre does not say. Some 20 or 30 of them have returned to China. The system is only the substitution of *white* slavery for black, with the change of the word slavery for that of *apprenticeship*. Half the world are frightened at mere names. The present English operative system, in which white men, women, and children are worked as hard as our stout negroes, and that, too, for a bare subsistence, is considered by

enlightened Europeans, and by some Americans, as perfectly humane, philanthropic, and Christian-like; but the very same amount of labor performed by our well-fed and clothed slaves, under the name of *slavery*, is considered by these same enlightened Europeans and Americans as monstrous, cruel, infamous! So much for a mere name. In Cuba it is getting to be considered quite infamous to use African slaves; but to make a poor Chinaman do the same amount of work, under a tropical sun, for a mere pittance, and under the name of *freeman*, is considered quite reasonable, honorable, humane, and Christian-like! One of the grand results of the civilization of the nineteenth century is, that it is quite honorable to enslave the white man, in fact, under the name of *freedom*; and the very height of humanity and decency to turn the negro race loose upon the world, to roam among the whites in idleness and vagabondage. Our cities are overrun with this race, who live by vice and pilfering, keeping our police busy, our magistrates in the active exercise of their judicial powers, and our prisons tenanted with lively specimens of negro humanity. Free negroism is an unsightly, putrifying plague-spot upon the fair face of the nation, that will, some day, be wiped out with a vengeance. It behooves the people of the United States to see that it receives no further extension in Cuba.

We will conclude our observations on the population of Cuba with the following tabular statement, which is the latest official census that has been published:—

## FIXED POPULATION OF CUBA IN 1853.

## WESTERN DEPARTMENT.

JURISDICTIONS.	Area in sq. leagues.	Whites.	Free col'd.	Slaves.	Total.	No. per sq. league.	Pop. of the chief towns.
Pinar del Rio.....	312..	21,843..	3,824..	9,998..	35,665..	114..	1,500
S. Cristobal.....	76..	11,578..	1,923..	6,548..	20,049..	276..	270
Bahia-honda.....	64..	4,124..	621..	5,494..	10,239..	159..	570
Maribel.....	48..	15,921..	2,849..	19,422..	38,192..	795..	1,296
San Antonio.....	13..	12,284..	1,721..	10,188..	24,193..	1,861..	2,890
Habana.....	75..	87,916..	32,594..	26,850..	147,360..	2,098..	125,905
Santiago.....	18..	7,194..	1,597..	4,964..	13,755..	764..	2,274
Bejucal.....	16..	10,817..	1,746..	7,938..	20,501..	1,281..	2,264
Guanabacoa.....	14..	10,721..	3,273..	4,322..	18,316..	1,308..	8,100
Rosario.....	26..	11,764..	2,841..	5,428..	20,033..	770..	450
Guines.....	95..	18,214..	2,442..	16,918..	37,574..	395..	3,542
Jaruco.....	43..	10,218..	1,875..	8,136..	20,229..	470..	611
Matanzas.....	72..	34,721..	5,948..	40,728..	81,397..	1,130..	26,000
Cardenas.....	106..	27,521..	3,824..	55,016..	86,361..	814..	6,173
Sagua.....	123..	14,534..	1,173..	10,001..	25,708..	209..	2,510
Cienfuegos.....	215..	17,811..	4,124..	11,318..	33,253..	154..	4,708
Santa Clara.....	113..	25,592..	8,528..	5,301..	39,421..	348..	6,604
Trinidad.....	73..	15,208..	7,324..	9,318..	31,850..	422..	14,119
Remedios.....	205..	15,149..	3,821..	4,012..	22,982..	102..	5,270
Sto. Espiritu.....	321..	24,321..	6,394..	6,816..	37,532..	116..	9,982
Total.....	2,028..	397,451..	98,442..	268,717..	764,610..	377..	



## EASTERN DEPARTMENT.

JURISDICTIONS.	Area in sq. leagues.	Whites.	Free col'd.	Slaves.	Total.	No. per square league.	Pop. of the chief towns.
Pto. Principe...	505..	26,893..	10,318..	9,321..	46,532..	92..	26,648
Nuevitas.....	190..	2,721..	397..	1,742..	4,860..	25..	820
Tunas.....	229..	3,818..	1,821..	722..	6,361..	27..	2,004
Manzanillo.....	116..	7,321..	11,143..	917..	19,381..	167..	3,050
Holguin.....	212..	19,427..	3,271..	3,827..	26,525..	125..	3,754
Bayamo.....	110..	10,721..	11,217..	2,724..	24,662..	224..	5,875
Jiguani.....	59..	6,721..	4,318..	684..	11,723..	198..	950
Cuba.....	267..	21,524..	29,718..	34,000..	85,242..	319..	24,253
Guantanamo.....	134..	1,574..	2,281..	5,928..	9,783..	73..	863
Baracoa.....	123..	3,817..	3,721..	1,842..	9,381..	76..	2,400
Total.....	1,945..	104,537..	78,205..	61,709..	244,450..	125..	
Total of the whole island.....	3,973..	501,988..	176,647..	330,425..	1,009,060..	254..	

It is to be observed that the above table gives only the *fixed* population of the island, which is 1,009,060. If to this we add the transient population, we have in all 1,050,000. In the area and population of the jurisdiction of Havana is included the Isle of Pines; and in the population of the city of Havana is not included the suburbs, Regla and Casa Blanca. Regla, situated on the eastern shore of the port of Havana, has a population of 7,240 inhabitants; and Casa Blanca, on the northern shore, has 1,070 inhabitants. The areas and population of all the islands and keys adjacent to Cuba are also included in the above table.

**MILITARY FORCE.**—Just at the present moment, when filibusters are said to be planning extensive expeditions against Cuba, and when the state of our relations with Spain is somewhat equivocal, the subject of the military force of that island has a peculiar interest. We will therefore give, in full, the statements of *Don José Maria de la Torre*, as those statements have been published under the eye of the Captain-General, and may therefore be regarded as official. All familiar with the Spanish character will know what allowances to make; but still, it is well enough to see what accounts the Cuban officials give of their own military powers.

According to our author, the land forces of the island are now on the most brilliant footing, both in respect to military instruction, discipline, and equipment. The army of the island is composed of sixteen regiments of infantry, of 1,000 men each; two companies of picked men, 125 in number; two regiments of lancers, of four squadrons each, embracing 602 men, and 500 horses; besides, there are four light squadrons, each consisting of 151 men, and 125 horses. There is also a regiment of foot, with eight batteries of artillery, a brigade of five batteries, and a company of sappers and miners, together with a large reserve of chiefs and other officials, making the totality of veteran troops as follows:—

Infantry.....	17,500 men.
Cavalry.....	{ 1,808 men. 1,500 horses.
Artillery.....	{ 1,500 men. 190 horses and mules.
Sappers and miners.....	130 men.
Total.....	20,938 men, and 1,690 horses.

This total does not include the Civic Guard, which is also a part of the veteran troops.

In addition to the above forces, there are on the island one regiment of militia infantry; one regiment of disciplined militia cavalry, of 781 horses; also eight rural squadrons, of two companies each, and of 100 horses each company. The urban companies of cavalry also number 740 mounted men, making in all a total of 3,500 mounted men.

According, then, to this official statement, there were in Cuba, at the time of its publication, which was made since the commencement of the present year, a land force of 24,438 troops; and more recently there has been announced the arrival of 6,000 troops from Spain, and 500 more on their way from Cadiz; so that the military land force of Cuba, at the present moment, probably exceeds 30,000 men.

NAVAL FORCE.—The Cuban squadron consists of 1 frigate of 44 guns; 7 brigantines, carrying 104 guns; 11 steam vessels, with 54 guns; 4 schooners, with 11 guns; 2 gun-boats, with 6 guns; and 2 transports; in all, 25 vessels and 219 guns, manned by 3,000 men. Two steamships of war were also building in Spain, destined for Cuba. The personal and material commercial marine force of the Island is as follows: Registered able men, 2,052; disabled, 487; number not in active service, 495. Of the vessels, there are,—

7 of over 400 tons.  
30 of from 200 to 400.  
99 of from 80 to 200.

295 of from 20 to 80 tons.  
208 of less than 20 tons; and  
2,454 of still smaller burden.

Regarding the commerce, revenues and expenses of Cuba, M. Torre furnishes us nothing later than 1851, so that all he gives on these subjects has already appeared in the pages of this REVIEW. He is entirely silent on the subject of taxation, as might be expected; and he dispatches the whole subject of revenues and expenditures in twenty lines. And, besides, what little he says on these important subjects is very deceptive. He states that the total revenues of the island, in 1851, amounted only to \$13,821,456; and the total expenses to \$11,969,750. From this, one might infer that the inhabitants of Cuba were taxed only to the amount of \$13,821,456 in 1851; and that after deducting \$11,969,750 for the expenses of the island, there remained in the Treasury the balance of \$1,851,706;

but such was not the case. The inhabitants of Cuba were taxed to the amount of both the revenue (so called by M. Torre) and the expenses; or, in other words, the taxation amounted to \$25,791,206 (\$13,821,456, plus \$11,969,750.) The \$13,821,456, which M. Torre calls all the revenue, went to Spain, while the other \$11,969,750 could easily be accounted for by the Captain-General and his army of officials.

**RAILROADS IN CUBA.**—Internal improvements in Cuba have of late made notable progress, so that, at present, there are 351 miles of railroad connecting some of the most important places. From Havana a railroad extends across the island of Batabano, sending off a branch westward to S. Antonio and Mariel. At S. Felipe the Havana road turns eastward, and proceeds on to Güines; thence further east it unites, at Union, with the Matanzas Railroad, which has its northern terminus at Matanzas. Farther eastward the Havana road unites with the road to Cardenas. So that Havana, Matanzas, and Cardenas are united by railroads. A railroad also extends into the interior, 34 miles, from Jucaro, a place on the northern coast, east of Cardenas. From Cienfuegos a railroad also extends into the interior to Santa Clara. A railroad extends also from Nuevitas to Puerto Principe, 44 miles. There is also a railroad from the city of Cuba to El Cobre. These roads have many important branches leading into the richest parts of the island. Many important roads in the island are also projected, or in progress, which, when completed, will render every part of the island accessible. The highways of the island are, in general, very poor; and in the rainy season almost impassable, as no improvements are ever made upon them.

The railroad from Havana to Bejucal and Güines, which was opened in 1837-8, was not only the first in Cuba, but the first railroad ever constructed in any Spanish country. It was not until 1848 that the first railroad in Spain was opened—that from Mataró to Barcelona. The road from Madrid to Aranjuez was opened in 1851, and extended to Tembleque in 1853.

**TELEGRAPHS.**—The magnetic telegraph is in operation in several parts of Cuba. Lines are being extended from Pinar del Rio, in the western part of the island, to Santiago de Cuba in the eastern part, with branches to the principal towns on the coasts. Havana is also being connected by telegraph with Matanzas, Cardenas, and Guanajay, the wires following the railroads. A telegraph line between Havana and Batabano, on the south coast, is now in operation.

The external means of communication with the principal points of the island are very extensive. Steamers and sailing vessels run regularly between all the principal ports. Havana is connected by daily lines of steamers with Matanzas, Cardenas,

and Jucano, arriving at Matanzas in five hours. Between Batabano and Santiago de Cuba, in the eastern part of the island, steamers and sailing vessels run regularly, touching at Cienfuegos, Trinidad, Santa Cruz and Manzanillo, and arriving at Santiago de Cuba in five days. Steamers also run daily between Batabano and Bailsen, touching at Dayaniguas, Coloma, and Punta de Cartas; also weekly between Batabano and the Isle of Pines. Havana is also connected with other important places on the northern coast by regular steamers.

EDUCATION IN CUBA.—Public instruction has made notable progress in the island, particularly since the establishment of the royal *Sociedades Economicas* of Havana and Santiago de Cuba; and above all since 1842, when an important and extraordinary change was effected in the establishments of public instruction.

At Havana is the Royal University, completely and permanently organized, with a rector and a corps of thirty professors. There is now in the course of construction, at Havana, by the government, a large edifice destined for instruction, called the Royal College of Havana; and it is proposed to erect another like it at Puerto Principe.

There is at Havana, and also at Santiago de Cuba, a college, subject to special regulations, in which are taught the branches of an ecclesiastical course, together with the humanities and philosophy. The city of Havana also contains many excellent private schools, similar to those of the cities of this country.

The press of Cuba, as all know, is lamentably shackled, fettered and handcuffed, as indeed is the case in all Spanish countries. There are published at present at Havana four daily newspapers; one monthly periodical, entitled the *Anales*; two semi-monthlies, *La Revista de la Habana*, and *El Almendares*, both picturesque; and there are also circulated some literary and scientific publications, edited principally by young men of the country, who, with laudable perseverance, have devoted themselves to the cultivation of letters.

At Matanzas there is issued daily the *Aurora*; at Trinidad, the *Correo*; at Santo Espiritu, the *Fenix*; at Puerto Principe, the *Faral*; and at Santiago de Cuba there are three publications, the *Orden*, the *Redactor*, and the *Memorias de la Real Sociedad Economica*. Newspaper literature in Cuba is at a low ebb, not for the want so much of talent as of liberty. Cuba has produced some respectable authors in various branches of literature. In poetry have figured worthily, in the Spanish Parnassus, Zéqueira, Rubalcaba, Heredia, Blanchié, and Milanés. Most of these have excelled in lyric and descriptive pieces, and some in dramatic compositions. The best Cuban drama is the *Conde Alarcos*, of Milanés. Of female writers, Cuba can cite the Countess de Merlin, who has distinguished herself as a novelist.



Among Cuban historical writers may be mentioned Arrate Urrutia, Valdes, and Heredia; in grammar, Vidal; and in philosophy, the learned priest Varela. In jurisprudence have figured Ayala, Hechavarria, Ponce de Leon, Escovedo, Armas, and Govantes; and in medicine, the memorable Romay.

In all estimates of the territorial extent of Cuba, the adjacent islands are included. It may, therefore, not be improper to give some account of those islands. The largest and most important of these is the Isle of Pines, called by Columbus, who discovered it in 1494, *Evangelista*. It is situated 18 marine leagues south of the port of Batabano, and is included between  $21^{\circ} 27'$  and  $21^{\circ} 58'$  N. lat., and between  $76^{\circ} 11'$  and  $76^{\circ} 52'$  of west longitude from Cadiz. In its greatest extent it measures, from north to south, 12 Cuban leagues;\* and from east to west, 16. Its area is about 600 square miles, which is not quite half that of Long Island; the area of the latter being 1,500 square miles. Its nearest proximity to Cuba is  $18\frac{1}{2}$  Spanish leagues, or 71.8 English miles. The figure of the island is compared, by Spanish writers, to that of the body of a common chaise, which, indeed, it much resembles.

The climate of the Isle of Pines is exceedingly salubrious, for which reason it is frequented annually by multitudes of patients afflicted with consumption. Its mineral waters are also an inducement to invalids. The aspect of the island is exceedingly various and picturesque, presenting lofty mountains, extensive plains, thousands of beautiful rivulets, and a notable marsh, extending across it from east to west, dividing it into two unequal parts. The coasts are indented with numerous bays and coves of great beauty, the largest of which is that called Siguanea, on the west side.

The most remarkable mountains are the *Sierra de la Cañada*, rising about 1,600 feet above the level of the sea, and presenting precipices 150 feet in height; the *Daguilla*, about 1,500 feet in height, rising in the form of a cove, with the base thickly enveloped in a forest, while the top, destitute of trees, affords a rich pasturage for cattle. From the top of the *Daguilla*, the eye takes in the whole island at a single view, the panorama being surpassingly grand and beautiful. The *Sierra de la Caballos*, 1,074 feet in height, and that of *Casas*, half a league from the former, are composed of beautiful marble, of all qualities and colors, affording the white statuary, equal to the Carrara. Lastly, the *Cristales*, which, though of little height, is remarkable for its sides abounding in green rock crystal, which might be made very valuable.

The largest river in the island is the *Nuevas*, but it is not navigable, its mouth being obstructed by a bar. The *Santa Fé*,

\* The Cuban or Spanish league is 4,291 English miles.

whose waters are medicinal, is navigable to Balandras, one and a half leagues from its mouth, a depth of from 10 to 12 feet of water. The *Sierra de Casas* river, 140 yards wide at its mouth, is navigable for vessels drawing  $5\frac{1}{2}$  feet of water for a league or more.

The Isle of Pines is a dependency of Havana, and is governed by a politico-military *Comandante*. The capital of the island is *Nueva Gerona*, situated in the north part of the island on the river Casas, three-quarters of a league from its mouth. The town stands on a plain between two mountains, the *Sierra de Caballos* and the *Cosas*. It contains 109 houses, besides a church, a prison, a hospital, and a free school. Besides two sailing packets, there is also a steamer plying weekly between this place and Batabano, the southern terminus of the railroad from Havana. The passage is made in seven hours.

The other places of the island are unimportant. Santa Fé, which was totally destroyed in 1846, now contains only 20 houses; but, owing to its valuable mineral waters, it is growing rapidly. The population of the island, which in 1797 was about 76 souls, amounted in 1828 to 427. The present population is 1,400, of which 106 are colored, and the rest whites.

The products of the island are cattle, tobacco, timber, pine, mahogany, cedar, and other valuable trees; marble of all qualities and colors, rock crystal, sulphur, spirits of turpentine, pitch, tar, turtles, and tortoise-shells. The island also has mines of silver, quicksilver, and iron.

The other islands belonging to Cuba are *Cayo Romano*, *Guajaba*, *Cayo-Cocos*, *Turiguave*, and several smaller ones called *cayos*, or keys.

Cayo Romano is a long, narrow island, on the northern coast of Cuba, divided into two parts by a channel about half a mile wide. It is about 66 miles long by  $2\frac{1}{2}$  wide, and has an area of about 172 square miles. It is a flat island, with the exception of the low ridge called *Silla de Cayo-Romano*, visible at a distance of 24 miles, and the height called *Aji*. It extends in a northwestern and southeastern direction, and contains a hacienda for the breeding of black cattle and horses. Its jerked beef is highly esteemed, and its timber and natural productions in general are excellent. Numerous salt-works exist in the island, but it is badly watered. It belongs to the jurisdiction of Puerto Principe.

Guajaba is between Cayo-Romano and Punta del Sabinal, and is about 30 miles long by  $1\frac{1}{2}$  broad. Its area is 15 square miles. It is a fertile island, and well watered. Its productions are the same as those of Cayo-Romano. Cayo-Cocos has an area of 28 square miles, and possesses valuable fisheries. Turiguano contains 38 square miles. Cayo Largo, east of the Isle of Pines, contains also 32 square miles.

All of these islands, and thousands of others clustering about Cuba, though now comparatively worthless, owing to a lack of good government, are, nevertheless, very fertile, and, in better hands, would become immensely productive.

There are at present in Cuba 1,560 sugar plantations, 1,218 coffee plantations, 5,128 cattle farms, 13 chocolate plantations, 224 cotton plantations, 34,439 fruit and vegetable farms, 7,979 tobacco plantations, and 2,284 *colmenares*, or farms devoted exclusively to the production of honey and wax. The amount of the products of the island in 1852 was as follows :—

Sugar.....	29,165,238 arrobas*	=	7,291,309 cwt.
Coffee.....	1,166,902 "	=	291,725 "
Tobacco.....	1,776,160 "	=	444,040 "
Molasses.....	267,185 hogsheds.		
Brandy.....	39,411 pipes.		
Honey.....	106,175 barrels.		
Bees-Wax.....	74,903 arrobas	=	18,725 "

The entire exports of Cuba, in 1851, amounted to \$31,341,683, and the entire imports to \$32,311,430. —The annexation of Cuba to the United States would probably quadruple its exports and imports in a very few years, both by vastly augmenting those branches of industry already existing there, and by introducing new branches. The cotton and coffee culture, now almost extinct there, would be revived; the copper mines, by being more effectually wrought, would furnish a more abundant product; and all those branches of industry, now almost smothered by the restrictions and taxation of a despotic and short-sighted government, would revive with all the vigor and enterprise incident to the influences of a free government. The Spanish race would gradually improve from contact with the Anglo-Saxon race, and Cuba would truly become, what the Spaniards already claim for it, "the brightest gem of the ocean."

#### Art. II.—INFLUENCE OF THE MECHANIC ARTS ON THE HUMAN RACE.

THE history of the Mechanic Arts would be the history of man himself, in all the various phases of civilization, the modifications of society and the transformations of polity through which he has passed during so many centuries of his recorded existence, and should conclude with a prophetic survey of their progressive results through ages to come. It is impossible to do justice in a few pages to a subject so vast in its conception, so complicated in its applications, and so infinite in its deductions; and it could not even be done, if permitted to enter upon it on a more extensive scale, unless with the possession of an amplitude and energy of intellect which, although occupying in the narrow

\* The arroba is 25½ lbs.

cell of the brain no more space than would fill up a lady's glove, could, in obedience to volition, and in imitation of the tent given by the fairy Paribanou to Prince Ahmed, spread itself as wide as the canopy of heaven. This elastic texture of the mind, which, dilating without bounds, could be commensurate with the universe, and which would be so necessary to the proper accomplishment of such a task, was once possessed by a man who, at the age of thirty-one—nay—however advanced might have been his time of life, could alone have written, without provoking a sneer at his consummate presumption: "I have taken all knowledge to be my province." Need we name Bacon, of whom Macaulay has so beautifully said: that the glance with which he surveyed the intellectual universe resembled that which the archangel, from the golden threshold of heaven, darted down into the new creation:

Round he surveyed—and well might, where he stood  
 So high above the circling canopy  
 Of night's extended shade—from eastern point  
 Of Libra, to the fleecy star which bears  
 Andromeda far off Atlantic seas  
 Beyond the horizon.

Art is defined by that illustrious man, "as a proper disposal of the things of nature by human thought, labor and experience, so as to answer the several purposes of mankind." Physical or intellectual labor, whatever it be, could not but suggest certain rules by which its operations could be performed with more facility, more skill, and with less loss of time. Those rules were next systematized, arranged, and classified as the results of repeated and progressive experiments. These systems regulating the operations of the mind and body, in compelling nature to become the handmaid of mankind by ministering to its wants, gave rise to a decomposition of the meaning primitively attributed to the generic word: Art. Born with man, like man, it went forth and multiplied, and became subdivided into parts or branches originating from the same trunk, and called the useful or mechanic, the fine or liberal arts.

The former are said to be "those wherein the hand and body are more concerned than the mind; of which kind are most of those which furnish us with the necessaries, and are properly known by the name of trades. The latter are such as depend more on the labor of the mind than that of the hand; they are the produce of imagination and taste, and their end is pleasure." But is there sufficient clearness and precision in this definition? Where is that point, in the exercise of the arts, which ceases to be debatable territory between the powers of the mind and those of the body? At what definite moment does the one predominate over the other? Take the mechanic arts, for instance. Every one of them is composed of two elements—speculation, gradually



growing into theory—and physical labor, daily ripening into practice and habit. But what is practice, if not the result of thought and the application of speculation, be it done consciously or unconsciously by the mechanic? Conception is the first step—action the next, and when the fruit of both has come to maturity, how can we tell the exact period of its formation when the material power predominated over the ethereal?

The man who first invented a tool which we may now look upon as a very ordinary one was an artist, because in its production there must have been a greater exertion of mind than muscle; although the one who copied it is a mechanic, if we adopt without qualification the definition which has been quoted. But when that mechanic is at work, how do we know, at the time we look at him and give him that name, whether or not he may not be at that moment more engaged in an intellectual than a physical operation? How do we know that the individual who is heaving up the hammer, or driving the plane on a common board, and pursuing an occupation so humble that it is apparently unconnected with any exercise of the mind, is not theorizing about it, without perhaps being aware himself of the mental process he applies to his manual labor, and by which he may suddenly strike out some wonderful improvement, by chance, as it is commonly said, or seemingly, by a flash of inspiration? How do we know, when we only see bodily fatigue pearly on his bent brow, and exhaustion thickening his panting breath, that, whilst his arms work, he is not weaving comparisons, pursuing a train of deductions and inductions, discovering connections between particular operations, and lifting up his foot to step beyond the line of mere habit? How do we know that practice in him is not spiritualizing itself into speculation and theory, just as that rough material on which he is plying may be one day dissolved into an invisible gas, at the magical touch of science? How do we know that his sooty hand is not already on the latch of the door which he is to open to that splendid procession of improvements which is waiting outside—that he is not ceasing to be a mere unreflecting piece of flesh and bone machinery, and is not ascending the pedestal of invention—that he is not going to rise to the dignity of a benefactor of his race—and that on the hitherto clumsy work on which he had been apparently bestowing only physical labor, he is not now ready to stamp an eternal impress—the token of the sovereignty of the intellect—and make it the Cæsar's coin that will pass current throughout the world?

Thus the mechanic arts may gradually emerge from that kind of twilight to which they have been confined by the common prejudice of mankind, and may brighten up and expand into as glorious an illumination as ever was produced by the fine arts.

Thus may the mechanic secretly feel that he is unfolding the wings of intellectual ascension, when still in the estimate of his fellow-beings he is plodding the dull earth, and when, agreeably to the terms of an accepted definition, which is not more accurate than most definitions, he is engaged in a work "in which the hand and the body are more concerned than the mind." This reflection must be consolatory and encouraging for those who exercise those useful arts which have so long undergone unmerited depreciation.

Look at those two men who are making bronze pitchers. Who are they? Mechanics; will say the inattentive host of those who pass by. But what is called a man of taste happens to stop. He pays no regard to one of those workmen, and bows with reverence to the other. Why?—because the one, in his opinion, is a vulgar mechanic; and the other, Benvenuto Cellini—the great artist. Yet, for the crowd they were both alike—both engaged in the same operation—and both held brothers of the same trade before the distinction of superiority, perhaps accidentally discovered or acknowledged, had set them so far apart. But what is that degree of skill to which the other pitcher maker and chaser must attain, before he may be permitted, like his companion, to merge the mechanic into the artist, although he may never arrive at the same excellence? Who can say? And besides, what is the precise amount of taste required, to justify the issuing of such a verdict, to entitle it to be recorded, and to cause it to be respectfully carried into execution?

Look into a different direction, where two men are stuffing capons. Can there be a less exalted occupation? Who is the one on the left? A mechanic. And the other on the right, is he of the same tribe? Oh no!—It is Francis Bacon, the Lord Chancellor of England, stuffing a fowl with snow to make an experiment, and applying his favorite process of induction in order to "enlarge the bounds of human empire," through an operation which, apparently, is only mechanical. Thus it is within the power of man to ennoble even the stuffing of a capon, to cause mind to predominate over physical labor even in the improvement of a wheel, and to convert the mechanic art into the liberal art, that in which, according to the received opinion, the intellect is more concerned than the body. We hope that in these two short illustrations will be found a meaning and a morality without further observations on our part.

Within the wants which God gave to our race lay concealed the roots of the mechanic arts, many of which must have been coeval with man. They were to keep pace with the progressive development of his intellect as a condition of his existence. Wants increase with their gratification, and produce others which have the same cravings. Whatever were the original

scantiness and simplicity of food, clothing, and habitation, to provide for them required a combined exertion of the body and of the intellect, which is—art, in all the imperfection, it is true, of its primitive rudeness, but yet producing a more or less “proper disposal of the things of nature by human thought, labor, and experience, so as to answer all the purposes of mankind” at the time. For instance, the making of the bow and the arrow is a mechanical operation; but he who first made a bow and arrow cannot be said to have been a mechanic, for its invention and practical application demanded a combination of thought far superior to the physical labor bestowed on the weapon. So impressed with this belief was mankind when in its infancy, and even when beginning to bloom into the adolescence of civilization, that all inventions, however simple they may appear to us now, were attributed to gods and goddesses, or at least to emperors and empresses, and to the most exalted of the human race. Thus spinning was ascribed by the Egyptians to their goddess Isis, by the Greeks to Minerva, by the Peruvians to Mama Ella, wife of their first sovereign Mango Capac, and by the Chinese to the wife of the Emperor Yao. Scythos, the son of Jupiter, was thought to have invented the bow and arrow, and you know that Bacchus, himself a god, and the son of the greatest of the gods, was the first vine-dresser. These illustrations are sufficient; your own erudition will supply you with the rest if necessary.

Thus in the mechanic arts, as in man from whom they emanate, and without which he could not fulfil his destinies, there is a duality—theory and practice—soul and body—practice or physical execution which, like the body, is restrained within certain proportions—and theory which, boundless like the mind, may embrace all the endless variety of the things of nature in seeking to adapt them to the uses of mankind. Wherefore, then, should it not be the ambition of every mechanic to keep himself on a level, by education, with those mechanic arts which we have shown rising to a higher degree of excellence than is generally assigned to them, and which, as we have said, required in their invention, and have displayed in their successive improvements, more labor of the mind than of the body? Wherefore should not a noble attempt be made to refine trades into liberal arts, and by the increased and ever increasing application of the intellect to those trades, to command for them that consideration which, for so many centuries, had been withheld, because they were looked upon as pursuits to be carried on, almost exclusively, by the process of manual labor?

But how came those useful arts which led to the civilization of mankind, and which at first were the object of so much admiration that they were supposed to be the manifestations of

divine intellect, to fall so rapidly into disrepute as to bring even contempt on those who exercised them? The reasons of this change strike us as the consequences of some facts, to which attention is called. When the first mechanic arts were invented, men were free—they were hunters, shepherds, tillers of the ground. But when for reciprocal protection they formed themselves into associations, called tribes or nations, they soon began to war upon themselves as they had upon the wild beasts of the forests, and to reduce one another into a state of servitude. Hunting, which certainly is a species of war, had been the first occupation of man, and was thought to be the noblest of all those to which he subsequently addicted himself. When he became the owner of slaves, he soon relinquished to them the drudgery of manual labor or the mechanic arts, and reserved his hands for the exclusive use of the bow and the spear, to which he was indebted for the lordly command he had assumed. Sprung from the free cradle of mankind, but nursed in the lap of slavery, the mechanic arts, in spite of this adverse circumstance, flourished to a considerable degree in Asia, and particularly in Egypt and Chaldea, where we still wonder at the gigantic fossil skeletons of the stupendous cities and monuments they erected. But these nations, great as they rose to be, were but a vast agglomeration of slaves, subjected to the dreaded will of a splendid despotism, cemented by force, and often sanctified by religion, and there the mechanic arts were left to the most inferior classes—to the lowest in the hierarchy of slavery. It is not therefore in Asia that the mechanic arts could command from mankind that position which they are now beginning to enjoy.

When civilization brought the mechanic arts into Greece, it had slavery for its travelling companion, and the same consequences followed—they were left to the slaves. The masters reserved for themselves what are called the liberal arts—the pursuits of the free—from the word *liber*. Hence the admiration of the world was for the liberal arts, and its contempt for the mechanic arts—the useful, but the menial and the slavish. The former were the privileged occupation of freedom, and the glorious exemplification of thought gathering itself into a visible substance in all the diversified splendor of form and color. The latter were debased with the touch of servitude, and were looked upon as more or less ingenious specimens of manual labor, to which the intellect could not be supposed to stoop. Hence the estimate in which they were held in that loveliest portion of the earth, where life was all thought and feeling, and where poetry seemed to rise up like a natural exhalation from every object by which man was surrounded.

Thus the mechanic arts, although the eldest of the family to



which they belong, and to the manor born, were stript of their inheritance by the liberal arts, which assumed the exclusive sovereignty of the world, and claimed its undivided homage; and it is almost amusing to see the contempt with which they are treated by their younger sisters. This feeling was carried so far at one time that, to pursue any mechanic art, and therefore to minister to the comfort of human beings, was thought to be more than a condescension, more than an humble office; it was looked upon as a degrading occupation, and, by some, as an immoral one, which ought to be spurned by free and high-minded men. If Democritus had discovered the principle of the arch; if Anacharsis had stooped so low as to imagine the wheel that was to help the potter in his labor, they were to be excused rather than to be eulogized for what they had done. Seneca, who had so much pretension to wisdom, would have considered it an insult if he had been supposed capable of turning away from the pursuit of framing the stilts on which his inane philosophy and inflated morality walked so pompously in preaching their precepts, to waste a thought on the invention or improvement of a plough, a ship, or a mill. That was good enough for his slaves or freed men—it was too menial for himself—it was not a sufficiently imposing taxation on his mind, which could not consent to pay such penny tribute into the exchequer of humanity. But, to justify the murder of a mother by an imperial son, to kiss the foot of the parricide in abject servility, to write moral essays on the same tablets on which he had recorded the panegyric of a monster, to indulge in the solemn mockery of praising poverty amidst the millions he had hoarded up, simplicity of life when owning palaces and gardens worthy of an Eastern satrap, abstinence when reclining on the couch of luxury and liberty with the same voice which had hailed the divine Cæsar, was a liberal pursuit, which slaves and freed men could not be permitted to approach.

"Archytas," says Macaulay, in one of his essays, "had framed machines of an extraordinary power on mathematical principles. Plato remonstrated with his friend, and declared that this was to degrade a noble intellectual exercise into a low craft, fit only for carpenters and wheelwrights. The office of geometry, he said, was to discipline the mind, not to minister to the base wants of the body. His interference was successful; and, from that time, according to Plutarch, the science of mechanics was considered as unworthy of the attention of a philosopher."

In a later age, Syracuse being besieged, Archimedes, the celebrated mathematician, set fire to the fleet of the enemy by causing the concentrated rays of the sun to be reflected from a mirror of his invention, and spread terror among the invaders by the construction of engines which scattered death and havoc at a

prodigious distance. But the sage thought that, to descend from the altitude of his learned speculations to the flat level of practical utility, was a sacrifice of intellectual dignity which needed an apology, and he spoke of his improvements in the Mechanic Arts, either as derogatory acts, which had been forced from him by the necessities of the moment; or as trifling amusements into which he had allowed his mind to relax.

The destruction of the Roman empire, with the convulsions which preceded and followed that great event, were not favorable to the development of the Mechanic Arts, either theoretically or practically, and were not of such a nature as to procure for them a higher degree of estimation from mankind, when it was relapsing into the ignorance of barbarian life. In the feudal ages, those arts were left altogether to the serfs, and neither the iron-clad baron, the cloistered monk, the disputatious scholar, nor the fierce sectarian or religious zealot, were disposed to favor those engaged in the Mechanic Arts, and ever thought that there was any merit in undertaking to increase by them the power, and to ameliorate the condition of the human race. It is only about two hundred and fifty years ago, under the reign of James the First, in Great Britain, that their importance and the consideration they deserved began to be appreciated. Then was preached the doctrine of utility and progress, which has since been called the Baconian doctrine, from the name of its originator. That great innovator maintained that the end of science and art ought to be : "The relief of man's estate." It was : *Commodis humanis inservire* : "To serve the interests of humanity." It was : *Efficaciter operari ad sublevanda vitæ humanæ incommoda* : "To remove efficaciously the inconveniences of human existence." It was : *Dotare vitam humanam novis inventis et copiis* : "To endow mankind with new inventions, resources, and faculties." One of the most praiseworthy objects of the highest intellect was, in his opinion, that of teaching man how to use his hands, how to become a skilful mechanic, and how to improve the arts which are so indispensable to his existence and welfare, by the combination of theoretical and practical knowledge. Suiting the example to the precept, he said : "that, as nothing was insignificant that could minister to the slightest wants of humanity, and nothing too humble, provided it was useful, to be disdained by the intellect,\* whatever of an architect he might perhaps become in philosophy and the sciences, and whatever else he might happen to be, he would not disdain still to labor as a common worker and stone carrier, and

\* *Quique architectus fortasse in philosophiâ et scientiis esse debeam, etiam operarius et bajulus, et quidvis demum fio, cum haud paucæ quæ omnino fieri necesse sit, alii autem ob innatam superbiam subterfugiant, ipse sustineam et exsequar.*

do all those small things from which shrinks the vain pride of others." Thus Bacon aimed at a generous innovation in the ideas and feelings of mankind. He found the Mechanic Arts crouching under the depreciation which had kept them in a state of imbecile servitude, and every man of liberal education turning away from them with scorn, and thinking them unworthy of his attention. What had been the inevitable consequence of such a prejudice? It was, that many of the arts which were undoubtedly the most useful, and therefore of the most vital importance to the human race, and which, under the investigation of a scientific mind, were susceptible of the most wonderful improvements, had been unnoticed by the speculations of the intellect, and pushed aside as ignoble rubbish, befitting only the manipulation of joiners, masons, smiths, weavers and apothecaries. It was necessary to assert the primogeniture of those arts, to vindicate the dignity of their nature and of their rights, to assign to them the prominent post to which they are entitled in the van of civilization; and to proclaim in the words of one of the most brilliant of modern historians: "That, as they have a most serious effect on human happiness, they are not unworthy of the attention of the highest human intellect." Thus Bacon gave the first blow to remove the barrier that impeded the progress of the useful arts, and registered in the records of posterity the verdict of genius against that contempt of centuries which had assumed the prescriptive right of confining them within the narrowest sphere, and to keep those who exercised them forever sunk to the lowest depths of society, in utter forgetfulness that those Mechanic Arts were coeval with the birth of man; that they had civilized him; and that, without them, those fine arts of which we are so proud, and which have monopolized the attention, the studies, and the admiration of mankind, could not have existed.

But were the Mechanic Arts deserving of the low estimate in which they were held, and is it true that the mind has less to do with them than the physical powers of man? To ascertain how much of mind there is in them, look at their results, and judge of the tree by its fruits. To him who may inquire what the Mechanic or Useful Arts have done, we answer: they have purified the pestilential breath of disease, clipped its dusky wings, dried up many of its sources, ascertained the various character of the hateful family into which it diversifies itself, and have restrained, or conquered, if not entirely annihilated that relentless foe; they have deadened the sting of pain; and they have, as the tables of mortality will show, prolonged the duration of human life. If the soil round us blooms with more fertility—if the mariner ascends his bark with no hesitation, and dares the pathless ocean with as great a feeling

of security as he gambolled in his boyhood round the paternal roof—if the warrior uses weapons, in comparison to which the lance of Achilles would be as insignificant and harmless as the bodkin used by a fairy's tiny hand—to whose influence is it due? If, at the command of man, the darkness of night has vanished from the very hall in which you may be assembled; if, in imitation of Omnipotence itself, he could say: Let there be light—and there was light—whence does he derive that power? Let us, with the help of the imagination, and with its lightning speed, make a journey throughout the world. Here come we to a wide estuary, and no means of transportation is at hand. But lo!—materials of iron, stone or brick gather themselves up into a bridge of the most beautiful architectural form, and we walk over the foaming waves. Shall we tire you with the enumeration of the endless prodigies we shall witness? Do you wish to play with the thunderbolt of heaven—to see the most remote star that modestly twinkles behind the infinite host of fixed or moving orbs which have been flung like dust over the immensity of space, or to examine how many invisible beings a drop of water can contain? Do you wish to travel with almost viewless rapidity—to master all the elements—to annihilate distance—to remove mountains, to fly over their heights or to pass through their strong and compact ribs—to soar into the air—to dive into the sea and walk at its bottom—to visit the gnomes in the frightful recesses of the earth—and to send to a friend who is a thousand miles away from you a message of love which he will receive in a few minutes? Do you want your carriage to whirl along without horses, and your bark to speed on, against the wind, without oars or sails? What other miracles do you want? You have only to speak, and you shall be obeyed. But, before you depart, turn round to thank the Mechanic Arts, and say no longer that “the body is more concerned in them than the mind.”

The Mechanic Arts had not been properly understood. Otherwise, how could they have been despised, when their effect is to raise man almost into a God, by giving him empire over matter? Is it not sufficient for their rehabilitation, that their end is the greatest comfort and happiness of the human race? Is not the evidence of their intellectual essence in the mere fact that they make inanimate matter instinct, as it were, with life—that they appropriate to the use of man the plastic powers that lie latent in the womb of nature, and that they convert its substances, apparently the most worthless and common, into such gorgeous or delicate articles as may adorn a lady's brow or a monarch's throne? In the progressive discoveries by which the boiling water, bubbling up in a barbarian's caldron—the light and damp smoke it emitted—and the rough metal which contained it—



were transformed into the complicated agent of power which we possess in the steam-engine, is there not as magnificent a manifestation of intellect as in the most celebrated productions of the Fine Arts?

We have said that all the Arts belong to the same family, and it would require no great effort to show that poetry itself is not unconnected with the Mechanic Arts. Can it be denied that no poetical imagination ever dreamed the realities with which they have surrounded us? Have they not actually produced things so strange, that they look as belonging only to the world of visions? Have they not surpassed in what they have written on the broad tablets of nature the descriptions of the Arabian tales? Have they not achieved feats more bewildering than those related in the romances that disturbed the brains of the knight whom Cervantes has immortalized? To use language which we find ready at hand, and which we borrow as being more elegant than any of our own: "Have they not erected buildings more sumptuous than the palace of Aladdin, fountains more wonderful than the golden water of Parizarde, conveyances more rapid than the hippogryph of Ruggiero, arms more formidable than the lance of Astolfo, remedies more efficacious than the balsam of Fier-à-bras?" We hope we may be permitted to add: is not their sober reason more magnificent than the wildest dreams that ever came out through the portals of brass or ivory? What talismanic wonders are to be compared with the miracles produced by the philosophy of the Mechanic Arts? Which of those incantations in which superstition formerly believed ever produced results so astounding? Have not the Mechanic Arts already accomplished some of those prodigies prophesied in the New Atlantis of Lord Bacon? Had any human being related, a century ago, that he had seen what every child witnesses every day as a common occurrence, would he not have been considered as deserving less credit than Baron Munchausen, or Sinbad the sailor?

When Fletcher put the following lines in the mouth of Arbaces, the Oriental conqueror:

"He shall have chariots easier than air,  
Which I will have invented; and thyself,  
That art the messenger, shall ride before him  
On a horse cut out of an entire diamond,  
That shall be made to go with golden wheels,  
I know not how yet....."

he was a poet—one who pursued a liberal art. But he who executed the poet's conception, he who gave an enduring and useful embodiment to those flitting visions of the brain, he who produced the fire-breathing horse and the golden wheels, when the poet "knew not how yet" it was to be done—is he not entitled to as exalted a seat as the poet himself on the broad plat-

form of the intellect; and is he not incommensurably his superior as to the benefit conferred on mankind?

We invite you to remark, that the Fine Arts have long reached perfection, and have ever since remained stationary, whilst the Mechanic Arts seem destined to expand beyond any of the limits which the imagination can assign to their march. Has Homer ever been surpassed? Can there be a more eloquent writer than Plato, more splendid orators than Demosthenes and Cicero, more sublime historians than Tacitus, and greater philosophers than Socrates and Aristotle? Has the sculptor Phidias ever been eclipsed? Will those who erected the Coliseum and the other architectural wonders of antiquity—will Michael Angelo, Raphael, Murillo, and many others, their peers in genius, ever acknowledge a master? Will the art of music ever find more admirable interpreters than Rossini and Meyerbeer? The human mind can readily imagine that they can be equalled, but cannot conceive how they can be excelled. But are you not convinced, from the experience of the past, and on the evidence of the present, which meets your eyes whichever way you turn, that there is no stopping point in the improvements of the Mechanic Arts? If this be true, if progressive expansion without bounds be one of their constitutional elements, do we venture too far when we maintain that it is illogical to say, that they do not appertain to the domain of the intellect as much as the Fine Arts, which, for centuries, have been moving in a mere circle, luminous though it be, and worthy as it is of all the admiration of our race, of which they are the delight and solace? Is not the divine nature of man better exemplified, and is not his imperial destiny better demonstrated and established, by the limitless conquests made, and to be made, by the Mechanic Arts over the world of matter, on which they inscribe the title deeds and proofs of his sovereignty? This can no longer be denied, and thus for them has come at last the day of justice. Truly, indeed, may it be said of the Mechanic Arts, that their triumph is great—for they have conquered the prejudices of the world with the noblest of weapons—in striking them with admiration and gratitude, by the magnificence of their works, and by the blessings they have showered upon our race with the almost gorgeous profusion of divine benevolence.

Thus the celebrated Huygens, although he was the first mathematician and astronomer of his age, did not blush, as Seneca would, at having discovered the means of rendering clocks exact by applying the pendulum, and of equalizing its vibrations by the cycloid. That great philosopher and mathematician, Robert Hooke, would have scorned a Plato's remonstrance against his stooping so low as to invent the spring or pocket watch, and several other mechanical improvements. The

learned Otto Guericke, who invented the air pump, and the Honorable Robert Boyle, who improved it, never thought of apologizing, like Archytas and Archimedes, for what they had done. A Howard, a brother of the Duke of Norfolk, did not think he was degrading himself into a slave, and that he was engaged in a base occupation, when he discovered a new process of refining sugar, "by which more money has been made in a shorter time, and with less trouble and risk, than was perhaps ever gained from an invention." Sir Humphry Davy did not feel, as Socrates himself might, that he was derogating from the majesty of the intellect, when he instituted a series of philosophical experiments, by which he constructed the safety lamp, with the assistance of which "the miner walks through a body of fire-damp in his subterranean apartments without danger of explosion." Arkwright, who had not originally received a regular scientific education, thought, no doubt, that he was following as noble and as intellectual a pursuit as that of any Greek rhetorician, when, for years, he went through an unwearied course of multifarious studies to improve the spinning-jenny—that so remarkable and so useful invention of his, "by which a pound of the finest cotton has been spun by machinery into a yarn extending more than one hundred and nineteen miles." He who, by a certain combination of charcoal and saltpetre, produced one of the most tremendous powers with which man is armed, lived, probably, in the time of Petrarch and Boccaccio. The inventor of printing was, it is believed, contemporary with Pope Nicholas the Fifth, with Cosmo de' Medici, and with a crowd of scholars, then distinguished, now sunk into comparative oblivion. But the prejudice which, for so many centuries, had been implanted in the human mind, had not yet been eradicated. Those two men, who had done more for mankind than all their contemporaries put together, were looked upon, it may fairly be presumed, as belonging, not to the aristocratic circle of those who cultivate the Liberal Arts, but to the plebeian class of those who pursue the Useful Arts, and are called Mechanics. Hence it is not surprising that no one thought of inquiring their names to record them for posterity. But if the inventor of gunpowder, and particularly the inventor of that art which has made thought visible, and given it life and body forever, were permitted to reappear on this earth, is there one among you who would not gaze on them with as much admiration as on any Nicholas the Fifth, Cosmo de' Medici, Petrarch, and Boccaccio, that ever lived? This shows the change which has taken place in the human mind, and the existence of a more correct appreciation or estimation of the respective merits of the Mechanic, the Liberal, and the Fine Arts.

Nay—the march of the Mechanic Arts has been such, that if

the old definition of them, which was quoted at the beginning of this sketch, possessed originally a befitting exactness of description, it does now seem so accurate in its application. You will recollect that the definition, acknowledged almost by all writers, is: "that the Mechanic Arts are those in which the hand and body are more concerned than the mind." Therefore its product, partaking of the nature of the producer, must be that in which there is more manual than intellectual labor. But is this the fact? On the contrary, is it not well known that, frequently, the most exquisite product of the Mechanic Arts is that issuing from those manufactures which may be said to dispense entirely with manual labor, by the use of such machinery as works with little or no aid of the human hand, but only through the will of the human intellect? For this reason, the former scholastic distinctions established between the Arts ought to be abolished, and the old landmarks removed. The mutual assistance existing between the Arts is so great, their affinities are so strong, that they ought to blend harmoniously together in a democratic union, and disclaim all the pretensions of an unnatural hierarchy. Equals in rank, and with laurels crowned, hand in hand, and forming round man a radiant circle of love and protection, let them move on, satisfying his physical wants, refining his moral and intellectual desires, and gratifying his tastes for pleasure and beauty. The Mechanic Arts are the embodiment of the sober faculties—of the ratiocination of man—the ingenious tools of his patient and reflective industry. The Fine Arts are the fairy children of his imagination—the gems that dropped from the rich casket of the mind—the realization of the dreams of the soul. The former are the fruits of the tree of knowledge—the latter are the flowers, and the delicate leaves, and the variegated hues with which it is embellished. In that little world of inventions which man is entitled to call his creation, the Mechanic Arts, although "formed out of the dust of the ground," like Adam, are, like him, "endued with sanctity of reason," and are "upright with front serene to govern" the world. They are made to

Be fruitful, multiply, and fill the earth—  
Subdue it, and throughout dominion hold  
Over fish of the sea, and fowl of the air,  
And every living thing that moves on the earth.

To complete the comparison, we will say that the Fine Arts are, like Eve, "all grace, and dignity, and love,"

"With what all earth or heaven could bestow,  
To make them amiable."

It is hoped there is nothing in the observations which have been submitted that can, in the slightest degree, be construed into a wish on our part to diminish the favor of that worship which has always been paid at the shrine of the Fine Arts;



and no one is disposed to bend lower than ourselves in the temple where the blest effulgence of their glory abides. Nay—who, in their presence, is not impressed with a sense of their majestic loveliness and supreme excellence? Look at the dying gladiator—you forget the marble—you feel tempted to rush to the assistance of the quivering flesh and the streaming blood which you fancy before you, for

He leans upon his hand—his manly brow  
Consents to death—but conquers agony,  
And his drooped head sinks gradually low—  
And through his side the last drops, ebbing slow  
From the red gash, fall heavy, one by one,  
Like the first of a thunder shower; and now  
The arena swims around him—he is gone,  
Ere ceased the inhuman shout which hailed the wretch who won.

Is not the whole scene as vividly before you, as if you were sitting in a Roman amphitheatre?

But stop, and beware of profane intrusion. Here is

The lord of the unerring bow,  
The god of life, and poesy, and light—  
The sun in human limbs arrayed, and brow  
All radiant from his triumph in the fight;  
The shaft hath just been shot—the arrow bright  
With an immortal's vengeance; in his eye  
And nostril beautiful disdain, and might,  
And majesty, flash their full lightnings by—  
Developing in that one glance the Deity.

Is not the illusion complete? Do you not feel that you are in the presence of the Apollo of Belvidere? And are you not indebted for it to poetry—the most beautiful, the most bewitching of the Fine Arts—the purest fountain of delight given to man, and where bubble up, invitingly to his lips, the perennial waters of immortality?

Shall we point out to you the Venus de' Medici—the dream of genius drunk with love—the cold stone made to breathe immortal grace, youth, and divinity—every perfection that visible substance can possess, gathered into a goddess—the divine forehead—the ambrosial lips—the soft curving lines of a body from which voluptuousness seems to exhale, as perfume from the rose?

Shall we attempt to describe the ecstasy which every one must feel at sight of the Coliseum, St. Peter's Church, the cathedral of Seville, the Moorish Alhambra, and so many other architectural wonders? Shall we speak of painting—which makes us shudder at the agonies of the crucifixion, and fall prostrate, shrouding our face from the overpowering glories of the transfiguration? Shall we mention music, that lingering echo of heaven preserved in the human soul—which soothes even the fury of the maniac, and which has a voice equally acceptable to the prostration of grief and to the elation of happiness? We have said enough to

show that, if we claim for the Mechanic Arts a portion of that sovereignty which their favored sisters had hitherto exclusively exercised over the world, we are as willing as any one to pay the tribute of our allegiance, when passing before the throne on which the admiration of mankind has placed the Fine Arts.

This is but a brief sketch, inadequate to the merits of the subject—a flitting and vague shadow cast on the wall—the imperfect concatenation of a few thoughts, caught at random and on the wing, as they sped their hurried flight—the mere outline or indication, rather than the completion, of a picture. Defective as it is, it closes at the point where we have conducted you—the rehabilitation of the Mechanic Arts in the estimation of mankind. In our next, we shall attempt to present, in the same comprehensive manner, some further considerations connected with the influence those arts have had, and which they will continue to exercise on the destinies of the human race. This is but the portico of the edifice through which it will be our pride to escort the reader, on some future occasion.

### Art. III.—GREAT CITIES OF THE UNITED STATES—SAVANNAH, GEORGIA.

#### No. V.

By the census of 1850, there were in Savannah 1,720 dwellings, and 1,783 families.

Families.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Whites.....	4,409.....	3,986.....	8,395
Free colored.....	264.....	422.....	686
Slaves.....	2,948.....	3,282.....	6,231
Total.....			15,312

#### AGES OF POPULATION.

	Male.	Female.		Male.	Female.
Under 1.....	152.....	177.....	20 and under 50.....	3,951.....	3,437.....
1 and under 5.....	645.....	766.....	50 and under 100.....	631.....	850.....
5 and under 20.....	2,238.....	2,457.....	100 and over.....	1.....	1.....
Born in the State.....	4,774.....		Born in Ireland.....	1,555.....	
“ New-England.....	268.....		“ Germany.....	383.....	
“ Middle States.....	533.....		Other foreigners.....	496.....	
“ South (out of Georgia).....	970.....		Total Foreign.....	2,434.....	
“ Northwest.....	14.....		United States.....	6,590.....	
“ South.....	31.....				
Born in United States.....	6,590.....		Total white and free colored.....	9,024.....	
Exclusive of unknown nativities.					

	Males.	Females.	Total.	Native-born.
Attending school.....	562.....	530.....	1,094.....	1,028.....
Adults who cannot read and write.....	8.....	9.....	17.....	8.....

Tonnage of Savannah, 1853, 20,595 tons; steam tonnage, 5,067 tons.

The population of Savannah was—

1800.....5,166	1830.....7,776
1810.....5,215	1840.....11,214
1820.....7,523	

The following is from the pen of a Charlestonian, and was prepared for the *Charleston Courier* :—

Savannah, the commercial capital of Georgia, is beautifully situated, on the south bank of the Savannah River, so named, we presume, from the swamps, now converted into fields, on its borders. It is the seat of justice of Chatham county, so called in honor of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, the great parliamentary advocate of the liberties of America. The city is distant, 12 miles in a direct line, and 18 miles by the curves of the river, from the ocean. It stands on an elevated plateau or high bluff, 40 feet above the bed of the river, at low-water mark. To be seen to advantage, it must be viewed from one of its church spires or other elevations, whence its public and private architecture, its beautiful river and busy wharves, its numerous steamers and other craft, its fertile low lands and adjacent country seats and scenery, present a landscape of great and varied beauty.

Many of the private residences in Savannah are very beautiful, and are mostly built after the Northern rather than the Southern style—with basement stories, in many instances, below the surface, (the soil being dry to a considerable depth,) and without the piazza or verandah. This is doubtless attributable to the large infusion of northern population. The lots are generally small, with little yard or garden room, and kitchens and servants' apartments within the main building. Houses are in great demand, although rapidly increasing in number, and rents are very high.

The interests of religion appear to be well cared for. The Protestant Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Baptists, Methodists, Lutherans, all have one or more places of worship—of more or less elegance of structure—and that of the Independent Presbyterians cost \$120,000. Besides these, there are the Roman Catholic Church, Penfield's Mariners' Church, the Jewish Synagogue, an African Methodist Church, and three African Baptist churches, in which four last named the preachers are negroes or colored persons.

Education also commands a high degree of attention and culture; the Chatham Academy, eight schools for instruction in the higher branches; the Savannah Free School, the Savannah Female Asylum, the Institution of the Sisters of our Lady of Mercy, and fourteen primary schools, contributing to the instruction of the rising generation.

The noble office of charity is likewise well served. Besides

the private charity, which letteth not its left hand know what the right hand doth, the following institutions and societies, among others, publicly minister in the cause of benevolence, viz. :—The Savannah Poor House and Hospital, Georgia Infirmary, Widows' Society, Savannah Free School, Clothing and Fuel Association, Hibernian Society, German Friendly Society, Mechanics' Benevolent Society, Seamen's Port Society, Female Seamen's Friend Society, Institution of the Sisters of our Lady of Mercy, Union Society, (for the support and education of male orphans,) Savannah Female Asylum, (with a beautiful edifice, and thirty orphans under its care,) five Masonic and four Odd Fellows' Lodges, and two Divisions of the Sons of Temperance. In addition to these, there are some twenty charitable societies or more connected with the different churches. Verily, then, doth Savannah not despise or turn her back upon the poor, but causeth the heart of the widow and the orphan to sing for joy.

She is an extensive cotton mart, and does a large business in rice and lumber, and in general trade. In 1848, according to "White's Statistics of Georgia," she exported 243,233 bags of cotton; in 1845, 304,544; 30,136 tierces of rice, and 16,449,588 feet of lumber. The value of her real estate, in the same year, was \$3,000,000. She has a banking capital proportioned to her commercial wants. Bank of the State of Georgia, capital \$1,500,000, of which \$800,000 are appropriated to Savannah; Planters' Bank, \$538,000 paid in; Marine and Fire Insurance Bank, \$400,000, with privilege of increase to \$800,000; Central Railroad and Banking Company of Georgia, \$2,549,165 paid in, and \$205,000 appropriated to banking in 1848; and the Savannah Institution for Savings, instituted in 1844. Numerous steamships, steamboats, and other packet lines connect her with all the principal ports of the United States, north and south of her, extending to Key West, Havana, Chagres, Panama, California and Oregon. The Steamboat Company of Georgia, and the Iron Steamboat Company of Georgia, each with a capital of \$100,000, and having three steamers and fourteen or fifteen tow-boats, capable of containing 750 bales of cotton each, besides five or six steamers, in no regular line, connect her interiorly with Augusta.

The Central Railroad places her in connection with Macon; and by means of a branch at Millen, with Augusta, and the railroad lines beyond these limits, open to her the enriching trade, not only of the whole interior of the State, but of the West and Southwest; and the Savannah and Ogeechee Canal gives her an additional channel of internal commerce. Besides all these elements of prosperity, she has cotton presses, steam and hydraulic; steam rice mills; steam saw mills; steam planing



mills; steam works and iron foundries, to propel her onward in her career of successful industry and enterprise. She also has telegraphic communications with all the principal cities of the Union.

The wharves of Savannah lie along the margin of the river, 40 feet below the general level of the city; and rising above the edge of the bluff are the fourth stories of the stores erected on the wharves, with entrances opening into them from this elevation.

Savannah enjoys a large degree of health, her authorities having promoted this great blessing by many judicious arrangements, and her statistics comparing favorably with nearly every city in the Union. Among the measures conducive to health is the ventilation effected by the location of a public square on every alternate section or square of the city. A large public park, with a pine grove, is laid out on the southern outskirts of the city; and a fine promenade, shaded by noble trees, occupies a portion of the bluff, near the river. The health regulations are, I learn, very stringent.

During the morning, after my arrival, a young companion and myself took a buggy, and rode out to Bonaventure, distant four miles from the city—"a country seat" formerly the property of Gov. Josiah Tattnall, of the Revolution, and the beautiful cemetery attached to it.

"The Evergreen Cemetery Company of Bonaventure" was incorporated in 1848, in the hope of making Bonaventure Cemetery the burial-ground of the citizens of Savannah, but it has been, as yet, very little used for that purpose. There are but few monumental memorials or vaults yet erected. Among them are those of Gov. Tattnall, Gen. Clinch, and the Cruger family, and some of them are very elegant and tasteful. The inclosure embraces an area of 70 acres, beautifully situated on the river; and it is remarkable for its magnificent avenues of live oaks. The oaks, profusely covered with venerable moss, are not of very large size, but are very numerous, those on opposite sides of the avenues commingling their leafy honors and interlocking their branches and joist-like limbs, so as to form Gothic arches or roof-like canopies over the walks. It has a wild and romantic aspect, and is very much neglected; but its natural and artificial beauty is so great as to render it a favorite ride, to the speed and comfort of which paved streets and a plank road, as substitutes for sand, would very much contribute.

Savannah was originally marked out and settled by the celebrated General James Edward Oglethorpe, with a body of colonists, who arrived (and in part landed) there on the 1st February, 1733. He obtained the consent of Tomo-Chichi, the Mico, or Chief, of a small tribe of Indians, who resided at Yamacraw,

three miles up the river, to the settlement of the colony, and thus became the founder of the Empire State of the South. On the 9th February, 1733, "Mr. Oglethorpe and Colonel Bull [from Charleston, with a message from the General Assembly, and a letter from Gov. Johnson of South Carolina, promising assistance to the colonists,] marked out the square, the streets, and forty lots for houses of the town; and the first house, which was ordered to be made of clap-boards, was begun that day." Gen. Oglethorpe, on his return to England, whither he set sail May 7th, 1734, took with him, on a visit, Tomo-Chichi, Scenawki, his wife, and Tooanahowi, his nephew, accompanied by Hillispilli, the war chief, Apakowski, Stimalchi, Sinlouchi, and Hinguitoi, five chiefs of the Creek nation, and by Umphichi, a chief from Palachocolas, with their interpreter. The Indians were received and entertained with great eclat at the British court, and set sail, on their return to Georgia, in November following. Tomo-Chichi died in 1797, aged 97 years, and was buried in the Court-House square, at Savannah.

In the vicinity of Savannah there are several places of historic or other interest. About nine miles from the city are the remains of Whitefield's Orphan House, an institution founded and established by the celebrated preacher, George Whitefield, who, on the invitation of the Wesleys, (then in Georgia,) offered himself as a missionary to the trustees of the colony, and in that capacity arrived at Savannah, on the 4th May, 1738. Among other useful and Christian labors, he dedicated himself to that of establishing an orphan asylum, for which purpose the trustees presented him five hundred acres of land, and he collected money for the purpose by preaching in Charleston and other places in the colonies—and in England crowds flocking to his ministry, it being "no unusual thing for 20,000 people to assemble to hear him." The Countess of Huntingdon, too, aided him in founding the institution, and it went into successful operation, and flourished for a number of years. An interesting letter from Whitefield himself, dated "Bethesda, in Georgia, March 26, 1745-46," represents it as flourishing at that date, but subsequently it went into decay, and was finally destroyed by fire in 1770; and in 1808, the property was sold by order of the Georgia Legislature, and the proceeds applied to the hospital, the Chatham Academy, and the Union Society. An old document, among the archives of the Georgia Historical Society, containing a list of the orphans of this establishment, shows that the ancestors of many of the most respectable families in Chatham, and other places in Georgia, were educated there.

Thunderbolt lies five miles southeast of Savannah, taking its singular name, according to Gen. Oglethorpe's account of Carolina and Georgia, "from the fall of a thunderbolt; and a spring

thereupon rose in that place, which still smells of the bolt." Brewton's Hill, now the property of Dr. Screven, was the place where a portion of the British landed, preparatory to the attack on Savannah, in 1778. At Gibbons' plantation, seven or eight miles from Savannah, is the battle-ground of a conflict between Gen. Wayne and a body of Creek Indians, commanded by Gurstersigo, who was left, with seventeen of his warriors, dead on the battle-field. Cherokee Hill, eight miles from the city, and Hutchison's Island, opposite the city, and many other places in the county, are associated with revolutionary incidents. Jasper Spring, situated about two miles from Savannah, just within the margin of an oak and gum forest, derives its name from the rescue of a number of American prisoners, and the capture of their foes at that spot, by Sergeants Jasper and Newton—a gallant incident, which our tasteful artist, John B. White, Esq., has happily commemorated with his pencil.

The gallant Jasper received his mortal wound at the siege of Savannah, when planting on the British lines the stand of colors presented to his regiment by the patriotic lady of Colonel Barnard Elliott, after the battle of Fort Moultrie. Lieutenants Bush and Hume had both been previously shot down in previous attempts to effect the same object, all three thus fulfilling the prediction in Mrs. Elliott's address, when presenting the colors:—"I make not the least doubt, under Heaven's protection, you will stand by these colors so long as they wave in the air of liberty;" and also fulfilling the pledge that "they should be honorably supported, and never be tarnished by the second regiment."

Among the distinguished living citizens of Savannah are the Hon. John McPherson Berrien and the Hon. James M. Wayne, of the Supreme Court of the United States. Mr. Berrien, as a profound lawyer, an able judge, and an accomplished statesman, is largely identified with the history and the fame of Georgia. He is one of the most polished as well as able speakers of our country; by universal consent he was regarded as one of the Ciceros of the American Senate; and his retirement from that body is a national loss. He is the son of Major John Berrien, of the revolutionary army, who migrated to Georgia from New-Jersey, at an early age. Mr. Berrien was born at his grandmother's residence in New-Jersey, where his mother was on a visit, while his father was in Georgia (to which he had returned after the close of his military service) preparing for the reception of the family. Mr. Berrien, therefore, claims a double nativity, being a Jersey Blue by actual birth, and a Georgian by virtue of his father's domicil. His mother was Margaret McPherson, the sister of John McPherson, (aid-de-camp of Gen. Montgomery, who fell at Quebec,) and of Gen. Wm. McPherson, who served in the American army until the close of the Revolutionary War.

The Hon. James Moore Wayne is a native of Savannah, and is maternally a descendant of the Clifford family of Charleston, from which Clifford's street and Clifford's alley took their names, but which is now extinct in the male line. He distinguished himself as a leading member of Congress under General Jackson's administration, and has long worn the ermine of the Supreme Bench of the Union with grace and dignity.

Among the many gratifications of my brief visit to Savannah was that of meeting, in her present postmaster, an old college friend, a native of South Carolina, and a graduate of her college, who, after running a distinguished career, professionally and politically, in both his native and adopted States, is now enjoying an easy independence, the fruit of his honorable toils, and a general esteem and popularity, the meet reward of his talents, his virtues, and his worth. Ever will I cherish among my most pleasant recollections the social as well as hospitable meal, partaken along with my family at his family board, where maternally grace and worth presided, and an affectionate circle gathered around his aged and venerable mother, an octogenarian, yet in a green old age, and full of interesting reminiscences of the olden time. Agreeable converse gave wings to time, and the hour of departure came with mutual regrets at its unwelcome intrusion.

After dinner I was taken by my friend to the residence of Mr. Tefft, who was, unfortunately for me, absent from the city, and I there enjoyed a hurried glance over a number of Mr. T.'s rare autographs and relics, which generally have the peculiar interest and advantage of being accompanied by letters or manuscripts, and often by portraits of the writers of the autographs.

#### ART. IV.—THE GREAT SOUTHERN CONVENTION IN CHARLESTON.

##### FOURTH DAY.

THE President laid before the Convention certain papers from Mr. J. J. Siebels, United States Charge d'Affaires at Brussels, which were referred to the Committee on Resolutions:

BRUSSELS, BELGIUM, March 22, 1854.

DEAR SIR:—I learn from the American papers, just this moment arrived here, that the "Commercial Convention of the South" will meet in Charleston in April—next month. I do not know what time in that month, but I trust not too soon for this to reach its destination before its adjournment. I had supposed that the Convention was to have met at a later period, and hence have put off addressing you upon the subject of this communication, that I might obtain all the information which would throw light upon so important a matter. But I must now write very briefly—and I fear very unsatisfactorily—or not at all.

It has long been a question of anxious consideration in the United States,



and particularly in the South, that our products should find a more *direct*, and hence a better market, on the Continent of Europe. The tribute that is annually paid to Liverpool for "receiving and forwarding"—for it amounts to about this—our products, cotton, rice, tobacco, &c., is enormous. I have not time to exhibit it by statistical facts; but this can easily be done by reference to the amount of our produce reshipped from Liverpool to the Continent of Europe, allowing *five per cent.* for Liverpool charges on the gross amount of sales, which is entirely lost upon every reshipment. This is the amount of tribute paid to that city. This will appear incredible; but I inclose herewith a copy of account sales of one hundred bales cotton, at  $8\frac{3}{4} = 4\frac{3}{8}$ d.,\* from which it will be seen that, after deducting the freight, the *duty*, (now no longer paid,) insurance charges in the United States, and one or two other minor items, that are common charges, and it will leave some *two hundred dollars*, as the amount of tribute on these one hundred bales cotton, in case they were reshipped to the Continent, where they would have to submit to about the same amount of charges. It may be said that this is paid, after all, eventually by the *consumer*. Grant, for the sake of argument, that it is; still is it not clear, that if the consumer had not this additional tax to pay, that he would be enabled to buy and consume more, and thus extend the use of the staple, increasing its demand, and thereby enhance, to a certain extent, its price?

What is true of cotton is also true of other commodities. Through every hand they pass, something must be deducted to pay for the handling, and the

\* Sale of 100 bales of cotton at Liverpool, direct from the United States, when the price was about what it is now.

100 bales of cotton..... 42,000 lbs.

Draughts per bale..... 100 lbs.

Tare 4 lbs. per cwt..... 1,500 "

1,600 "

Net weight..... 40,400 "

At  $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb.  $8\frac{1}{2}$  cts..... \$3,535 00

#### *Charges in the United States.*

Baggage, twine, mending and making..... \$14 50

Wharfage \$4, cartage \$10, storage \$8..... 22 00

Fire insurance, \$3 81, postage \$3 50..... 7 31

Marine Insurance 1 per cent. on \$3,578 81..... 35 79

Policy..... 1 25

\$80 85

#### *Charges in Liverpool.*

Dock dues £4 0s. 6d., town dues 16s. 8d..... \$23 32

Duty 35d. per cwt. on 360 cwt., 2 qrs., 24 lbs..... 252 50

Carriage, portage, weighage, £3 14s. 1d..... 17 78

Canvas, twine and mending, £2 9s..... 11 76

Warehouse rent for 12 weeks, £5..... 24 00

Postages and small charges, 10s. 6d..... 2 52

Brokerage  $\frac{1}{4}$  per cent., insurance  $\frac{1}{4}$  per cent., 3 months

10 days interest, discount  $\frac{1}{4}$  per cent.,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. on

£731 9s. 2d..... 66 26

Freight  $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb. on 40,400 lbs..... 404 00

5 per cent. prime on freight..... 20 20

Commission and guarantee 3 per cent. on £736 9s. 2d. 106 05

Three months' interest on cash charges, £974 7s..... 14 62

\$943 01

Total charges..... \$1,023 86

Nearly one-third of capital.

aggregate of these charges must be, in the end, paid mutually by the *producer* and the *consumer*. The evident desire of these, then, should be to reduce, as far as possible, the number of these charges or handlings, in their transit from the former to the latter. All this, however, is self-evident, and will doubtless be fully understood and appreciated by your Convention.

To the point, then, which is the principal object of this letter: that is, the selection of some suitable port on the western coast of Europe, that may be easily, speedily and cheaply reached by the cotton consuming and manufacturing countries of the continent—by all Germany, Holland, Denmark, France, Switzerland. By casting your eye over the map of Europe, you will perceive that there are but *two* points upon that whole coast, from the Mediterranean to the Baltic, that are at all suitable—taking into consideration their harbors, railroad connections, and accessibility at all seasons of the year—for great commercial entrepôts for our produce. These are *Antwerp* and *Havre*. The former, I am informed by those who are well acquainted with the subject, is by far the safest and most accessible harbor of the two, with quite as deep, if not deeper water on the bar. Its importance in all respects was fully appreciated by Napoleon I., who had determined to make it the maritime entrepot of France; and he had already commenced gigantic works of improvement to this end, when he was dethroned. Again, by reference to the map, you will perceive that *Antwerp* is, upon an average of some *three or four hundred miles*, nearer three-fourths of the cotton manufacturing countries of Europe than *Havre*. Belgium has by far the best and most extensive system of railroads, considering her geographical extent and population, than any country of Europe, hardly excepting England, and their charges for transportation are far less than in the latter country. The whole country is literally covered by a net work of these great iron thoroughfares; and *Antwerp* is connected by railroad with every important railroad on the continent; and with Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Cologne, Havre, Ostend, Ghent, of course the Rhine, in fine, with the very heart and centre of almost every important country in Middle and Northern Europe. In this respect, nothing is wanting.

The remaining point of paramount importance is, will the necessary facilities be afforded by the people of Belgium and the merchants of Antwerp, to purchase our produce—of course at fair prices—which may be thus wanted by the manufactories and consumers of Europe? I think I may pretty safely say *yes*.

A more direct and extensive commercial intercourse between Antwerp and the United States has latterly been a subject of much comment and anxious inquiry and consideration among the leading commercial men, and I may say statesmen also, of this country, from the king down. And the subject of a more extensive direct importation of Southern produce to *Antwerp* has received particular and special attention, with the double view of increasing the exports of Belgium to that portion of the United States, and of making *Antwerp* a more extensive depot for those products; and I feel quite sure, with the necessary timely encouragement from our side, that ample facilities would be afforded to purchase cotton and other products of our section, commensurate with the wants of this section of Europe; and further, to make *advances* thereon, until sales were effected. In fact, I may say that this has been assured me from the most reliable and wealthy commercial associations in the country. They propose to advance upon cotton for *three to six and nine months*, if necessary, at the rate of *five per cent. per annum*, and to sell at 2 per cent. commissions. These advances to be made in *Southern ports*, upon the shipment or consignment of the cotton.

As an evidence of the sentiment here, upon the subject of a more direct and frequent intercourse with the United States, I may mention, that within the last five months, the money necessary to build *four steam vessels*, to run

between New-York and Antwerp, has been subscribed, a company organized, and the vessels contracted for; and it is confidently expected that they will commence their trips within twelve months. And further, that a gentleman of the North, of great sagacity and wealth, has been here for the last five months, making arrangements to put on an American line of four more steamers, and that he has just left here, after assuring me that he will succeed. These are indications, at least, going to show the important estimation in which this point is being held, by sagacious mercantile men in both countries.

But, it may be asked, would not ships bringing Southern produce to Antwerp be compelled to return empty, or seek freight in other ports? Not at all. Belgium herself is the most populous country of Europe, and her manufactures are extensive and of a superior quality. Her laces, carpets, cloths, linen fabrics, glass, leather, etc., are celebrated for their extreme excellence; and my own experience of their very reasonable cost creates a surprise that they are not more extensively imported and consumed in the United States. This would result, I feel sure, from a more intimate knowledge of their great superiority and cheapness; and this would be, doubtless, brought about, so far, at least, as our section was concerned, by a more extensive importation of cotton to Antwerp. But, in addition to what we might take of Belgian produce in exchange, there would be such fabrics and commodities as we take from Germany, the north of France, etc.: porcelains, silks, leather, glass, cloths, jewelry, etc., etc.; and as it is to be hoped that our Southern cities are to become more extensive direct importers of those foreign commodities which are consumed at the South, ships which take out cotton could return with full cargoes *direct* to our ports. How much more natural such a trade would be, and how much more profitable to the producer and consumer of the South than that which now prevails! Cotton is shipped from Charleston, Savannah, Mobile and New-Orleans, mainly to Liverpool. There the ships take in a return cargo—in a great measure previously transported from the continent—for New-York, Philadelphia and Boston; and to these cities our Southern merchants repair to lay in their stocks, to be re-shipped by them to the South, at a cost almost equal to that of the original transport from Liverpool or the continent. Thus we pay *double* tribute for the great bulk of foreign goods consumed at the South—first to Liverpool, and then to New-York, Philadelphia and Boston. Surely it must be the finest country of the world, not only to *live*, but to *flourish*, under such unnatural and enormous drafts upon our industry. To what a degree of prosperity should it not advance, could we be disenthralled from such a state of affairs—to sell our produce in markets nearest to their consumption, and to buy, in return, those commodities which we consume of foreign manufacture, in those markets nearest to *their* productions!

Although *Antwerp* is not now what it has been in times long passed, in point of wealth and commercial influence—when it boasted its 5,000 merchants on 'change, its 2,500 ships floating at one time in its harbor—still it is yet a city of extensive commerce and trade. It numbers over one hundred thousand inhabitants, many of them of vast wealth and large business, and it is rapidly recovering the position which it once held in Europe, but which it has partly lost, mainly in consequence of the many cruel reverses to which it has been subjected, pending almost every war in Europe, from the days of its persecution by the cruel Alva, and the inquisition of Philip II., down to the siege of 1831. That it was thus invariably the point of attack, and always of the most stubborn and determined resistance, shows conclusively its great importance. Since 1831, it has gone on steadily to increase in wealth, commerce and population, and with the admirable system of railroads that connects it with every city, town and hamlet, almost, of Belgium, and with every part of Europe accessible by railroad, it must speedily approximate its former grandeur and importance. Its imports from

the United States amount to several millions annually, and is steadily on the increase. In 1850 there were about 45,000 bales cotton imported, and last year there were *seventy*. Had it been the lot of this city to belong uninterruptedly to one great power, that could have defended it successfully from that devastation and pillage of which it was so frequently the victim, it would now, perhaps, have excelled any city of Europe in point of trade and foreign commerce.

I regret that the hurried manner in which I am compelled to write this communication prevents the elaboration of many important facts lately alluded to; but they will doubtless be fully considered in all their bearings by your enlightened body.

It is not for me to suggest in what manner this business should be put into formula, or what preliminary steps should be taken in the matter by your Convention. It may, perhaps, be thought necessary to appoint an able and influential committee, on your behalf, to correspond with parties here, in order to arrive at some common understanding on the subject, which might greatly aid and facilitate the undertaking in its incipency, which is, in truth, the most difficult part of the business, and upon the success of which would depend, perhaps, the whole matter.

It would afford me great pleasure to co-operate with, and aid you in any way in my power, towards the accomplishment of the ends which will be the subject of your deliberations. A citizen of the South, and a planter myself, I have a double interest to subserve in furthering your views, and tendering my cordial good wishes to the issue of your proceedings.

In great haste, believe me, with great respect,

Your fellow-citizen.

*To the President of the "Commercial Convention of the South," Charleston.*

J. J. SIEBELS.

Lieut. M. F. Maury submitted, from the Committee on Resolutions, the following, viz.:

*Resolved*, That a committee of \_\_\_\_\_ be appointed, to consider and report upon the propriety and expediency of adopting some plan for promoting Southern and Western manufactures and mining operations.

**Resolved**, That this Convention recommend to each of the Southern States having a seaport, to encourage the establishment of a direct trade with Europe, either by exempting from taxes, for a limited time, the goods imported, or by allowing the importers an equivalent drawback or bounty, or by such other mode as to the Legislatures of the several States may seem best.

**Resolved**, That efforts should be made to establish a direct line of steamers with Europe, from some Southern port or ports, *without further delay*; and that, in the event of the establishment of such a line, the united support of all the Southern States should be pledged, if possible, to sustain such a line.

*Resolved*, That this Convention recommend to the Government of the United States the formation of reciprocal treaties with foreign governments, for the admission of their respective products at reduced and equal rates of duty; and that the Senators and Representatives from the respective States be requested to bring the subject before Congress.

Mr. Oakley, of Louisiana, moved that the gentlemen who desire to discuss the subject of the Pacific Railroad be now heard, which was ruled out of order, inasmuch as all the resolutions had been committed to the Committee on Resolutions.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was taken up from the table.

Pending its consideration, Lieut. M. F. Maury reported that the Committee of Vice-Presidents recommended that when the yeas and nays are called, the call be by States, each State having one vote. And on motion, the recommendation was adopted.



The report was then taken up.

Mr. Oakey, of Louisiana, moved to postpone the consideration of the same until to-morrow, at 9 o'clock, which was not adopted.

The first resolution was then considered, and verbally amended and adopted.

The second resolution was then considered, the blank filled with the words "three from each State represented in this Convention," and in verbal particulars.

Gen. Tilghman, of Maryland, offered as an amendment, to add as follows, viz.:

*Resolved*, That this Convention earnestly recommend to the Legislatures of the several States here represented the adoption of a system for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, by the granting of bounties and all such other benefits and privileges as the powers reserved and possessed by the States may permit.

And thereupon he addressed the Convention as follows, viz.:

That if it was in order, he would be glad to offer the resolution he had presented yesterday, as a substitute for this second resolution of the Committee.

The President.—It is in order.

Mr. Tilghman.—Regarding the proposition embodied in this resolution as one of an eminently practical character, without any desire to detain the Convention, yet believing, as his delegation did, that there was a principle involved in the declaration of the General Committee, and in the amendment he proposed to offer, calculated to be as important, if not more important, in its direct tendency and results, and bearing upon the subject now under consideration, and as it was perhaps the only subject on which the State of Maryland would desire to trespass upon the time of the Convention, he begged to be allowed to call attention to the subject most pointedly and particularly. He would then proceed at once to call the attention of the Convention to the particular point on which he desired their consideration. In the language of the General Committee, contained in their resolution, they recommended the appointment of a committee of three from each State, and among the different duties which this committee was to perform were the following:

"And that it be the duty of said committee to address the people of the States represented in this Convention, and to urge the importance of action in the Legislatures thereof, in favor of education, of manufacturing, of ship-building, of direct trade, and of mining."

The difference between that resolution, and the one submitted yesterday by the State of Maryland, was this: The Maryland delegation wished to call the attention, not only of the people and the Legislatures of the various States, to the general policy of promoting, by every means in their power, the important interests enumerated in the resolutions of the committee, but also to make a recommendation—or perhaps it might more properly be called an "instruction"—of this body to their committee, still more pointed and imperative. They wished to impress upon the committee, and through the committee on the people, and their Representatives in their several Legislatures, the importance of obtaining unanimity of action in promoting the encouragement of manufactures.

Mr. President, (continued Mr. T.,) I need perhaps go no further than the commencement of such sessions as the one in which we are now engaged, to show that, whilst the wants of the Southern and Southwestern States have been felt in the most vital degree, and whilst various recommendations have been made, proceeding from the most intelligent men in the country, for the purpose of remedying these wants, these recommendations so far have not proved efficient and effective. I might refer you to the

Convention in the city of Macon, Geo., held in 1839, and, without detaining the Convention with reading any of its proceedings, might simply state that, of the Southern States there represented, South Carolina had 170 delegates, North Carolina 3, Georgia 33, Alabama 5, Tennessee 5, and Florida 3. This, if I am correctly informed, was the third of a series of Conventions held about fifteen years ago. There had been one, I believe, in Augusta, and another in this city. At that Convention there were various resolutions adopted, and various reports were made. I allude particularly to a report made by the lamented General Hayne, of this city, in which he most succinctly describes what were then regarded by eminent men of the South, in that day, as to what were the evils to be remedied, and then proceeds to detail the mode of remedying them. He says that the first of these evils is the want of commercial capital directed to the direct export and import trade; second, the want of a sufficient demand for our own goods in our own ports and States; third, the want of lines of packet and steam ships running at stated periods between our own ports and those of Europe. Sir, there can be no doubt of the truth of all these propositions; and yet, when we come to the remedies proposed—and which I will subsequently state—we cannot agree in the policy and sufficiency of the policy contained in these recommendations, and we think that experience has shown that they are not calculated to produce the effects then anticipated. As a remedy for the first evil—his mode of supply capital—the proposition contained in the report is that, in the first place, the citizens of the States shall devote to the development of their resources a portion of their own means; but deeming these insufficient, a commission is to proceed to Europe, for the purpose of negotiating loans for this purpose. In the second place, it is recommended as a means of furnishing markets for importations, that we should commence and complete works of internal improvement, connecting our seaboard with the interior. And third, that lines of steamers and packet ships should be constructed by the joint corporations of the citizens of these States and of Europe. Now there could be no doubt of the advantage of these recommendations, if they could be successfully carried out. We have seen, on this occasion, recommendations of a similar character reiterated, thus going to show the wants which our States have felt, and that, in the opinion of many, the same remedies would be efficacious. But, sir, we still perceive that the great want is the want of means to carry any project into effect, and that the want of these means is only to be supplied in one way—by a patient, untiring, energetic development of our national resources: that, instead of sending our raw material abroad, we should manufacture it at home; that that State is the most prosperous commercially which contains the greatest amount of population employed in profitable labor; that population is what we want; that we have all the natural resources for the encouragement of immigration; that we have the raw material to manufacture, but not a sufficient population to engage in the production of that raw material, and also in the manufacture of it, and we ought to introduce measures which will induce immigration to our country; and we think that those measures should be by holding out inducements, by State legislation, either by bounties or by discriminations as regards taxation, or by the exercise of any other powers which would come within the scope of a State, and which would have the effect of enabling them to contend successfully with similar undertakings, which have now, under the fostering aid of our government, reached such a degree of excellence in the Northern part of the country as to prevent our competing successfully with them without such aid, at least for a time. Sir, what has been the experience of my own State? I believe, without designing to draw any invidious distinction, we are the largest manufacturing State of the South. Our manufactures grew up under the protection of the General Government; while again, at

another period, under the vacillating policy of that same government, our manufacturers were ruined, and their establishments were sold out. And they are now again in a prosperous condition, after having gone through all these vicissitudes. What is the case in the State to which the honorable President of this Convention belongs? Their manufactures commenced at a later period, and under more favorable circumstances, have met with greater success; but I have been informed that that success has been owing, in no inconsiderable degree, to the fostering care which the Legislature of that State has bestowed on these infant institutions. I have been told that articles manufactured in that State have been exempted from taxation; that members of corporations engaged in manufacturing in Georgia have been exempted from individual responsibility for the liabilities of these corporations; and that it has actually been further agitated in that State, to exempt from taxation property invested in such corporations. But, sir, as will always be the case, these questions, I am still further informed, have become matters of political difference between parties, as we saw some years ago, in the case of the General Government.

Now, if there be one purpose, more than another, that this Convention is calculated to subserve, it is this: we meet here on a common platform; we meet here to consult upon matters of business, in which, as citizens of the South, we have a common interest; we meet under a common agreement to have a truce for a time with regard to politics, that, if possible, we may determine by our joint deliberations what principle of trade it will be best to adopt, and by our joint recommendation of this principle we may have such an effect upon the Legislatures of the States, and even, peradventure, upon the General Government, as may be necessary to carry out the objects we have in view.

In reference to the point on which I am addressing the Convention, let me say that we look to State action, and to State action alone. We believe that experience has shown that, wherever the fostering aid of the State or nation has been given to undertakings of this kind, in their infancy, it has been productive of the most beneficial effects. We believe that we possess greater natural advantages than any other portion of the country, if not of the world; but we do not believe—and in this I speak for my State and delegation—that these natural advantages will be sufficient at the start—and we want, in order to secure the thorough independence of the South, to see manufactures encouraged in their infancy by State legislation, which has been so successful in the North, and that no further time be lost in securing so desirable a result.

Sir, these are the views which we wish most particularly to enforce upon the attention of the Convention; and having explained them in the imperfect manner in which I have done—although there are in the resolutions of the committee other topics of great and deep and important interest—I will not detain the Convention by trespassing on its time any further than my duty to my own State requires, for the purpose of making a brief allusion to the position she occupies in this body.

It has been said that the State of Maryland was the first to originate these Conventions. I am happy that the honor has been conceded to her; and, in view of the Convention now assembled, had nothing else proceeded from our efforts in that respect, we should have considered that, under Providence, we had been the means of raising a spirit and attention in the South to her true interests, which, if judiciously and wisely directed, will be productive of important results. We only wish to be understood as occupying a position upon the common platform of Southern interests; that, in originating these Conventions, it was not for the purpose of advancing our own peculiar interests, but really and sincerely for the purpose of advancing the interests of the whole South—aye, every portion of it. [Applause.] We claim—and

it is one of our proudest claims—to be a Southern State. [Applause.] We claim to be the only State possessing within its borders one of the largest marts upon the Atlantic seaboard, where citizens from the South can, with perfect impunity and without hesitation, go with family servants and property of every kind. [Applause.] We claim to be connected peculiarly with the South, and at the same time with Northerners in our commercial transactions, and yet more deeply with the West and Southwest. We believe that what is calculated to promote the interest of one portion of the country is calculated to promote the interest of another. We wish to see enlarged measures adopted. We do not wish measures adopted by Conventions, or Legislatures, or Congresses, for this or that section; but, meeting on a common platform, we wish to do everything that will advance all measures which each and all of them deem best calculated to promote their interests, general and particular. [Applause.]

We only desire, therefore, to say, in reference to ourselves, that, possessing all the advantages a large commercial State can confer, for the purposes of trade, the State having intercommunications now complete with every part of the country, a State now about to establish direct communications with Europe, and having already established communications with this port, and are rapidly doing so with others, we only wish to say that, possessing these advantages, and associating with all the Southern and Western States we hope that, whenever it becomes necessary for gentlemen from these States to turn their faces towards the North, in carrying out their business relations, they will turn their faces towards us, and they will get a warm Maryland reception; and that, if we use them as well as other cities on the seaboard, they will not refuse to give us the preference.

I have only now to say to this Convention, that having progressed as far as the third annual session, although we do not wish to interfere with the claims of other Southern cities, till they are satisfied, yet we hope the time will come, after the grandcircle of commercial events shall have transpired, which our brethren of the South seem determined to accomplish—after you have visited other great cities—we trust we shall again have the pleasure of welcoming you in Baltimore; and there, sir, we pledge you that, when next favored with your presence, we will give you an excursion.

And after some discussion, by permission of the body, the amendment was withdrawn, and the second resolution then adopted.

The third resolution was then taken up, and the blank filled with the words "three from each State here represented."

A division being then called for, the several measures, the subjects of the resolution, were taken up, and

The first measure being under consideration, Mr. Tift, of Georgia, moved to strike out "remission" and insert "reduction."

Lieut. M. F. Maury addressed the Convention as follows:

Lieut. Maury was reluctant unnecessarily to consume the time of the Convention, but as the motion last made had fairly brought the objects of the resolution up for discussion, he would ask the indulgence of the Convention, while he submitted a few remarks concerning the first proposition, asking for the remission of duties on railroad iron.

Gentlemen might well suppose that this subject had not passed through the General Committee hastily, or without discussion. After mature deliberation, that committee, being composed of three delegates from each State here represented, had instructed him to report this resolution.

It might be said that, in one sense, all the energies of the people of these United States were directed to the subject of lessening the expenses of transportation and of facilitating intercourse, and for this end railways might be classed as one of the most potential means. The States, the counties, the cities and the people were contributing largely, in the way of loans and sub-



scriptions, for the purpose of constructing railways and other works of internal improvement. Hundreds of millions of money had been contributed by them, and for what purpose? Why, for the purpose of removing obstructions, and of breaking through barriers which nature had interposed to freedom of trade and facility of intercourse. Every mountain which he saw tunnelled, every difficult pass which he saw accomplished, and every river which he saw spanned with a bridge or an aqueduct, he considered as a step gained in the onward progress of free trade; and whenever he saw subscribers putting down their names for stock in a railway company, he considered those gentlemen as making free-will offerings and giving tribute to the principles of free trade.

While the people, therefore, and the States, and the towns, and the counties, were making such tremendous efforts to remove from the path of free trade every physical obstruction which it was possible for science, skill, and ingenuity, backed by the almighty dollar, to overcome, he thought it monstrous that any system of legislation should be tolerated by the Federal Government, which would rig up legislation in the place of the physical obstructions, which had been removed with so much labor and expense. If the planter have to pay fifty cents extra the bushel, for getting his wheat to market, or fifty cents extra freight on the merchandise which he receives from abroad, in exchange for that wheat, it is immaterial to him whether that extra charge be made in consequence of a tax levied by reason of a physical difficulty placed in the way, or in consequence of legislative enactment. The whole country is concerned in cheap transportation, and any measure—such as the remission of duties on railroad iron—benefits the whole country. The duties upon railroad iron are unjust and unfair. The higher the price of iron, and the greater the difficulties which companies have in procuring their supplies of that material, the more burdensome do the duties become. When railroad iron was \$25 the ton, the duties were \$5; but now that it is \$60, the duties are \$12. The cheaper the cost of construction of the railroad, the greater is the circle of its beneficial influences upon the prosperity of the country, and the more does it add to the individual wealth, and to the value of the lands through which it may pass; and it is neither wise nor just for the government to adopt any system of legislation which tends directly to increase the cost of railway construction, as duties on railroad iron do.

There is another reason why the government should be called on to remit the duties on railroad iron. You recollect, that in 1816 a system of national defence was commenced, which contemplated fortifications for the whole Atlantic sea front, from one end of the coast to the other. And upon this system many millions of dollars have been expended. The government steadily pursued this policy for thirty or forty years. Finally, when the fortification bill came up among the annual appropriations, two or three years ago, it was laid aside, and a resolution adopted directing inquiry to be made as to the expediency of continuing that system of fortifications. Officers of the army and navy were consulted, and the result of the inquiry was to the effect that every railroad in the country might be regarded, in some sort, as a work for the common defence, and that the railroads already built, or in process of construction, had placed it out of the power of any nation on earth to invade this country, and that, consequently, it was unnecessary to erect any other fortification whatever, to prevent invasion. Now, then, it would seem but just and fair, that since these works of individual enterprise have saved the government from the expense of providing for coast defences by land, further than it may be necessary to prevent the ships of an enemy from coming with his great guns within reach of our seaport towns—now, then, said he, it would be but fair, considering these things, for the government to aid this wise and beneficial system of defence, by a total remission at least of duties on railroad iron.

And after considerable discussion thereon, the States were called, and resulted as follows, viz. :—

Yeas—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Maryland, Missouri, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia—9.

Nays—Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Texas—4.

Gen. Gibbs, of Tennessee, offered the following as a substitute, viz. :—

The suspension of the collection of the duties upon railroad iron for four years, and that all railroad companies be entitled to a drawback and credit for such duties, by way of compensation for transporting the mails on the respective roads, when completed and in operation,—which was lost.

Lieut. Maury moved to suspend the consideration of the report until two o'clock this day, which was lost.

Mr. C. C. Clay, of Alabama, moved to postpone the further consideration of the report until 2 P. M., which was ruled out of order.

Mr. Wm. Gregg, of South Carolina, moved to amend, by adding "locomotives and other machinery," which was lost.

The question then recurring upon the adoption of the first measure, as amended, resulted upon the call of the States, as follows, viz. :—

Yeas—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia—10.

Nays—Maryland, Missouri—2.

The first measure, as amended, was then declared adopted.

The second measure was then considered and adopted.

The third measure being under consideration, Lieut. Wm. Lewis Herndon offered the following amendment as an addition, viz. :

"And that the Government of Brazil be requested to permit those vessels to make explorations and surveys on the shores of the Amazon, belonging to that nation.

Lieut. Herndon then addressed the Convention in support of the resolution and amendment.

And the question being taken upon the amendment, it was adopted. The question recurring upon the resolution as amended, it was adopted.

The fifth measure being under consideration, Mr. N. D. Coleman, of Mississippi, moved to strike out "seaport town," and insert "port or ports," which was adopted.

The measure, as thus amended, was then adopted.

The sixth measure being then under consideration, Mr. Polk, of Tennessee, moved that it be stricken out.

Lieut. Maury said the resolution was fully debated in the committee, and the gentleman from Tennessee had opposed it there, as he had opposed it here. With regard to these harbor improvements, and their constitutionality, he (Lieut. Maury) maintained that the case, as presented by many of them now, is quite different from the case as presented by them when the subject was regularly made one of party politics. These railroads, and other works of internal improvement, effected by individual enterprise, are iron rivers, if gentlemen will allow the figure of speech, along which flow, in continuous and mighty streams, multitudes of people, and vast quantities of merchandise, on their way to the great highways and market-places of the earth. Take the city in which we are, and its harbor, as an illustration, though, with equal propriety, force and application, we might take Mobile, Savannah, Wilmington, N. C., Petersburg, Richmond, Fredericksburg or Baltimore—either would do as well—but we choose to take Charleston, because it was a case present, and therefore palpable to all. When the question arose as to the propriety of the General Government's undertaking to improve navigable rivers and harbors, the bar of Charleston and the business of Charleston were, in comparison with what they now are, matters of mere local concern. At that time, the extent of back country that looked to Charleston for an outlet to

the great high seas was of limited extent and of small population. But now, with these iron rivers, which the enterprise of her citizens, the State and her sister States have run back from this place into the interior of the country, a large portion of the people and State of North Carolina, Virginia, Tennessee, Alabama and Mississippi have become tributary to Charleston. Through Charleston and Charleston harbor, and across Charleston bar, lies their way to market. The people of all these States are directly interested in the improvement of this bar; and if the doctrine be good, that a river, to be constitutionally improvable with its navigation, must wash its banks in more States than two, we have here, in the case of these bars, all the conditions requisite to make their improvement strictly constitutional.

Charleston, fifteen years ago, did not, the Lieutenant was told, distribute to its back country more than five millions dollars worth of merchandise annually; within the last year she has distributed between thirty-five and forty millions. This fact affords another striking and beautiful illustration as to the tremendous increase of national wealth produced by railroads. What has given the people of this back country the means and the ability to buy and consume forty, instead of five millions worth of merchandise? Be it what it may, all will admit that railroads have had a powerful effect towards it. The people, whose industry, whose enterprise and capital have been employed to construct these railroads, have expended upon them many times the amount that would be required to remove the obstruction caused by these bars; they have done their duty; they have broken through every obstacle and reached the sea, the extent of their beat; they have now come to the place where the General Government has jurisdiction, and, in the language of this resolution, they have the right to demand of the Federal Government to do its duty, and to improve its harbors and navigable rivers: for the rivers—the great Mississippi and others—present cases as strong as do any of the harbors.

And the States being called, resulted as follows, viz.:

Yeas—Georgia, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia—4.

Nays—Alabama, Florida, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Texas—10.

The motion to strike out was declared lost.

Mr. C. C. Clay, of Alabama, offered as an amendment to the sixth measure, the addition of the following words, viz.:

“So far as the same may be within the constitutional competency of Congress.”

Mr. T. J. Kirkpatrick, of Virginia, offered, as a substitute for the sixth measure, the following, viz.:

“Upon improvement of harbors and navigable rivers of a national character.”

Pending the discussion of this measure, the hour fixed for adjournment having arrived, the President so stated.

But Mr. Coleman, of Mississippi, by permission, laid upon the table the following resolutions, viz.:

*Resolved*, That each delegate to this Convention be requested to pay over to the Secretary, or one of his assistants, before he leaves the city, the sum of \_\_\_\_\_ dollars, for the purpose of paying for the printing of the proceedings of the Convention, in pamphlet form, and that at least one copy of said proceedings be forwarded to each delegate.

*Resolved*, That a committee of five citizens of Charleston, and members of this Convention, be appointed by the chair to act as a Printing Committee, to cause to be printed the *proceedings* of the Convention, and such *documents*, connected therewith, as they may deem necessary and proper.

The President then declared the Convention adjourned, until to-morrow morning at 9 o'clock.

## Art. V.—AMERICAN CITIES.—HISTORY OF CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

[We have received an interesting pamphlet, containing several contributions which first appeared in the *Democratic Press*, giving a full account of the history and progress of Chicago. Some extracts from this pamphlet will be inserted in this and the next number of the *REVIEW*.]

## THE POPULATION OF CHICAGO.

1840.....	4,479	1848.....	20,023
1843.....	7,580	1849.....	23,047
1845.....	12,088	1850.....	28,269
1846.....	14,169	1852.....	38,733
1847.....	16,859	1853.....	60,652

This table will prove that the commercial and manufacturing facilities of Chicago are being appreciated. There is no other city east of the Rocky Mountains that can show a ratio of increase at all corresponding with the above. When to this we add, that with all our population and capital we have not half the money nor half the laborers that the commerce, manufactures, and general improvement of the city require, some faint conception may be formed of the strong inducements which are held out here to bring both capital and industry among us. There is not an idle dollar nor an idle arm or head in Chicago, unless it be from choice.

After we published our article on "*Chicago and her Railroads*," in January, it occurred to us that a short sketch of the history of Chicago would not prove unacceptable to our readers. At first we intended merely a brief notice to show her rapid growth, in connection with our Annual Review of the business of the city. The more we studied the subject and consulted those who have been here since the wolves were accustomed to visit every part of the city in the night, and the wigwam of the painted savage dotted the prairie on every side, the more have facts accumulated upon our hands, till now our only difficulty is to know what to reject. The rapid growth of the city within the last eight years—her immense increase in wealth and population—the proud position she has assumed among the commercial cities of the Union, and the certainty that her march will be *onward* till she yields in importance only to New-York, have created a very general desire among a portion of our own citizens, and especially in the Eastern States, to know more of her past history as well as her present resources and future prospects. The history of Chicago is intimately connected with the settlement and growth of the other parts of the State, and it will be equally interesting to notice, in a few paragraphs, some facts in relation to the settlement of this part of the Mississippi valley.



The origin of the term Illinois is given in the "Western Annals," edited by Rev. J. M. Peck, as follows: "The name Illinois is derived from *Leno*, 'man.' The Delaware Indians call themselves *Lenno-Lenape*, which means 'original, or unmixed men.' The term *manly* men, to distinguish themselves from mean, trifling men, would convey the exact idea. The tribes along the Illinois gave the French explorers to understand that they were *real men*. They said 'leno,' or 'leni.'" The termination "ois" is undoubtedly of French origin. As all strange and uncouth sounds are liable to be mis-spelled, it is very easy to see from the above how the beautiful name which our State bears was formed from the language of the first monarchs of the soil.

The "Illini," or Illinois Indians, occupied all the territory north of a line drawn northeast and southwest through the city of Ottawa, extending east to the Wabash, and west to the Mississippi River. The term was also applied to an indefinite territory west of the Mississippi.

The first white men who ever visited this region were Marquette and Joliet, two Jesuit missionaries, who explored this section of the Mississippi valley in the years 1662-3. Hennepin and La Salle followed a few years later, and as a consequence of these several explorations and discoveries, a magnificent scheme was formed by France to extend her possessions from Canada to New-Orleans, and thus having embraced the entire inhabited portion of the western continent, to advance eastward and secure the authority over the vast empire which her eminent statesmen even then foresaw must ere long occupy this magnificent country. The plan was well arranged, and its accomplishment constantly kept in view for nearly a hundred years, by the adventurous sons of La Belle France, but it was completely overthrown by the gallant Wolfe on the plains of Abraham, on the 13th of September, 1759. As a consequence of that victory, Canada fell into the hands of the English. The war of the Revolution transferred the northwestern possessions of the British to the United States, and the purchase of Louisiana by Mr. Jefferson from the French in 1803, gave us the possession of the entire Mississippi valley. The wisdom of that purchase, though strenuously opposed at the time, is now acknowledged by all parties.

Early in the revolutionary war, Col. G. R. Clark had formed the design of attacking the forts of the British at Detroit and in Southern Illinois, and laid his plans before the Virginia legislature. On the 2d of January, 1778, he received authority from Patrick Henry, then Governor of that State, to raise troops and to march westward on his bold and hazardous enterprise. This expedition was successful, and as a consequence, Virginia laid claim to the territory north and west of the Ohio River. This

claim was acknowledged by the other States, and Illinois was organized as a county of Virginia in October, 1778. The act was practically inoperative, as we cannot find that any one in behalf of that State carried the law into effect. From that time till 1784 there was no legal authority in the State. The people were "a law unto themselves," and to the credit of the early settlers, the annalist adds, that "good feelings, harmony, and fidelity to engagements prevailed." In March, 1784, Virginia ceded to the United States all her claim to the territory northwest of the Ohio; and in 1790 Gov. St. Clair organized the county which bears his name. From the year 1800 to 1809, Illinois was attached to the Territory of Indiana. In February of the latter year, Congress passed an act establishing the Territory of Illinois, and appointed Hon. Ninian Edwards, then Chief Justice of Kentucky, Governor of the Territory, and Nathaniel Pope, Esq., of Kaskaskia, Secretary. The Territory was organized by Judge Pope in March, and Gov. Edwards arrived in June, and assumed the duties of his office.

The first Territorial legislature convened at Kaskaskia, on the 25th of November, 1812; the Council, or upper house, consisting of five and the Assembly of seven members. The author of the "Western Annals" says of this body, "They did their work like men devoted to business matters. Not a *lawyer* or an *attorney* is found on the list of names. They deliberated like sensible men—passed such laws as they deemed the country needed; made no speeches, had no contention, and after a brief session of some ten or twelve days, adjourned." We are sorry to say that this good example has had too little influence upon succeeding legislatures.

In 1815, Hon. Nathaniel Pope was elected as Representative of the Territory in Congress. The north line of the Territory, as originally defined, ran due west from the south bend of Lake Michigan to the Mississippi. Judge Pope, seeing the importance of having a lake front in the future State of Illinois, procured the passage of an act extending that line north to the parallel of 42 degrees and 30 minutes, thus securing a most important portion of Territory from our sister State of Wisconsin.

Congress passed an act in 1818, approved by James Monroe, April 18th, authorizing the people to form a State government, provided it should be ascertained that it contained 40,000 inhabitants. All accounts agree in estimating the total number of people at about 30,000; but the different Marshals, by *accidentally* counting the emigrants who were coming in or passing through the State several times, made out the full number. Delegates to form a constitution were elected, who met at Kaskaskia in July, 1818, and having completed their labors, they signed the constitution and adjourned on the 26th day of August. The

constitution was adopted by the people, and the first legislature convened at Kaskaskia on the first Monday in October following. Shadrach Bond, of Kaskaskia, was elected Governor, and Pierre Menard, of the same place, Lieutenant Governor.

It will be seen from the above that it is not yet *thirty-six years* since our State government was formed; a State which has now more than a million of inhabitants, and whose principal commercial city has more than 60,000 inhabitants, and 1,626 miles of railroad completed, contributing to its prosperity. By the first of January next it will have three thousand miles finished and in operation.

We have found a great deal that is both instructive and amusing in the early legislation of the State, but we have room for only a single incident. It must be borne in mind that the first settlements were made in the southern parts of the State, by emigrants principally from Virginia, Kentucky, and some of the other Southern States. Many of them had a sort of "holy horror" for that ubiquitous, ever-trading sharper, "the live Yankee." To guard against his depredations, a law was passed, February 14th, 1823, duly enacting that "No person shall bring in and peddle or sell wooden clocks in this State, unless they first take out an extra license," for which the price was \$50. The penalty for violating the law was fixed at the same sum. This "said sum" would make a sad inroad upon Jonathan's profits, and hence, under the impulses of his "higher law" notions of the value of money, he pursued his "chosen calling" without any regard to the majesty of the law in "such case made and provided." He was of course arrested, and in due form arraigned before the court of Fayette County. The fact of "*selling*" was not denied, but it appeared in evidence that one Yankee brought them "*in*," across the river at St. Louis, and another "*sold*" them. The counsel for the prisoner, our fellow-citizen, Wm. H. Brown, Esq., contended that it must be shown that the prisoner did both "*bring in and peddle or sell*." Jonathan, as usual, escaped, and went on his way "*peddling*" and "*selling*" his wooden wares. We believe his "*Yankeeship*" has always, since the failure of that law to "head him off," been permitted to exercise his peculiar habits without "let or hindrance."

The history of our city is very intimately connected with that of the Illinois and Michigan Canal. The idea of a canal connecting the waters of the Lakes with those of the Mississippi, was suggested as early as 1814. In Niles' Register of August 6th, the following paragraph may be found:—

"By the Illinois River it is probable that Buffalo, in New-York, may be united with New-Orleans by inland navigation, through Lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan, and down that river to the Mississippi. What a route!

How stupendous the idea! How dwindles the importance of the artificial canals of Europe, compared to *this* water communication! If it should ever take place, (and it is said the opening may be easily made,) the Territory (of Illinois) will become the seat of an immense commerce, and a market for the commodities of all regions."

How strange to us appear some of the expressions in this paragraph! Then, all west of Ohio was an unbroken wilderness, inhabited only by savages, with here and there a fort or trading post, and a few small French settlements along the Mississippi. Little did the writer think that in only *thirty-four* years his "stupendous idea" would become a commonplace reality, and that in less than forty years a city of more than *sixty thousand* people would be reposing in quiet dignity at the northern terminus of that canal! What an "*immense commerce*" that city has enjoyed the past year, the sequel of this article is designed to show.

At the first session of the Illinois legislature, in 1818, Gov. Bond brought the subject of a canal from Lake Michigan to the Illinois River prominently before that body; and his successor, Gov. Coles, in 1822, devoted a large space in his message to the elucidation of the same topic. By an act passed February 14th, 1823, a Board of Canal Commissioners was appointed; and in the autumn of that year, a portion of the Board, with Col. J. Post, of Missouri, as Chief Engineer, made a tour of reconnoissance; and in the autumn of 1824, Col. R. Paul, an able engineer, residing at St. Louis, was also employed. Five different routes were surveyed, and estimates made of the cost of the canal. The highest estimate was \$716,110.

At this time, (1823, only thirty-one years ago), the Sangamon River and Fulton County were the northern boundaries of civilization, and in that region there were only a very few inhabitants. The whole northern portion of the State was still under the dominion of the wolf and the savage, with no prospect of its settlement for an indefinite time to come. The leading idea of the citizens of the south half of the State, where the population was then concentrated, was to open a water communication for them by the Lakes and the Erie Canal with New-York City.

January 18th, 1825, an act was passed to "incorporate the Illinois and Michigan Canal Company," with a capital of one million of dollars. As the stock was not taken, a subsequent legislature repealed the charter. In the meantime, our Senators and Representatives in Congress were urging upon that body the passage of an act granting to this State lands to aid in the construction of the proposed canal. The Hon. Daniel P. Cook, from whom this county is named, has the credit of leading in this movement. Accordingly, on the 2d of March, 1827, Con-



gress granted to the State of Illinois every alternate section in a belt of country extending six miles on each side of the canal. Owing to financial embarrassment, nothing effectual was done till January 22d, 1829, when the legislature passed a law organizing a Canal Board, and appointed Dr. Jane of Springfield, Edmund Roberts of Kaskaskia, and Charles Dunn, Commissioners. These Commissioners were empowered, among other things, to locate the canal, lay out towns, to sell lots, and to apply the proceeds to the construction of the canal.

In the autumn of 1829 the Commissioners came to Chicago, having employed James Thompson to survey and lay off the town. His first map bears date August 4th, 1830. It is in the Recorder's office.

Hon. S. D. Lockwood, now a resident of Batavia, Kane County, came up with the Commissioners in the autumn of 1829. We are indebted to him and to Wm. H. Brown, Esq., for much valuable information in reference to the early history of the State. Both these gentlemen are among the oldest citizens in Illinois, as they landed at Shawneetown in 1818, the same year the Constitution was adopted. We have the men among us who have seen the State in her infancy, and now look upon her with pride, assuming a commanding position among the oldest States of the Union.

The list of families residing here in the autumn of 1829, as given by Judge Lockwood, is as follows: John Kinzie, the father of our present excellent Alderman, John H. Kinzie, resided on the north side, a little west of McCormick's factory. West of Mr. Kinzie's, near the site of the Galena Railroad freight depot, east of Clark-street, lived Dr. Wolcott, son-in-law of Mr. Kinzie; Dr. Wolcott was at the time Indian Agent. Near the forks of the river, a little west of where Steel's warehouse now stands, John Miller kept a "*log-tavern*." On the south side, near the present residence of James H. Collins, Esq., a little south of the old fort, was the house of John B. Beaubien. Besides these, there were some three or four Indian traders living in log cabins on the west side.

There were, of course, the officers and men connected with Fort Dearborn. Perhaps we may as well pause here, and notice the building of the fort, and some other facts connected with our earlier history. It was built by the Government in 1804, and manned with a company of about fifty men and three pieces of artillery. Everything remained quiet till 1812, when the war broke out with Great Britain, and our Government, apprehensive that so distant a post among the savages could not be maintained, ordered it to be evacuated. The commander was required to distribute the government property among the Indians, and to march with his troops to Fort Wayne.

The fort was well supplied with provisions and military stores, and might have maintained a siege for a long time, against any force that the Indians could have brought against it; and nearly all the officers remonstrated against carrying out the instructions, but Capt. Heald determined to obey to the letter the orders of his superiors. The Pottawatamies were well known to be hostile, but Capt. Heald called a Council on the 12th of August, 1812, and laid the propositions of the Government before them, asking in return an escort to Fort Wayne. This the Indians promised to give. The distribution was to be made the next day. During the night, lest the guns and ammunition, which they would necessarily be forced to leave, might prove a dangerous gift to the savages, the powder was thrown into the well, and the guns were broken and destroyed. The liquor shared the same fate. The cannon were thrown into the river.

The next day the Indians came together to receive the presents, but their countenances betokened anger and deep-seated revenge, when only the goods of the United States factory were distributed among them. They charged the whites with bad faith, and left with feelings aroused to the highest pitch of resentment. In the afternoon Capt. Wells, the brother of Mrs. Heald, arrived from Fort Wayne with fifteen friendly Miami Indians, to act as a guard in the retreat that was to follow. On the morning of the 15th of August, the troops took up their line of march for Fort Wayne. Capt. Wells, with the friendly Miamis, acted as the advance guard; and about four hundred Pottawatamies, according to the stipulation made three days previous, followed at a short distance in the rear. They had proceeded in this order along the lake shore about a mile and a half, to a point near the residence of Mrs. Clark, when the Pottawatamies suddenly threw themselves in advance, and brought the sand-hills between their party and the whites. Capt. Wells immediately ordered his men to form, and charge the enemy, which movement was scarcely effected before they received a volley of balls from their savage foe. The troops did not flinch for a moment, but charged and dislodged the Indians in front; but their great numbers enabled them at once to turn the flanks of the troops, and to gain possession of the horses and baggage. At the first fire the Miamis galloped off, and could not be induced to join in the action. Capt. Heald, confident that further resistance was entirely vain, withdrew his troops to a small elevation, and awaited the movements of the enemy. They held a council, and soon their chiefs, of whom *Blackbird* was the leader, motioned Capt. Heald to approach. They met, and Capt. Heald agreed to surrender, on condition that the lives of the prisoners should be spared. The troops delivered up their arms, and were marched back to the fort. The loss in the ac-

tion, and in the subsequent massacre—for the Indians did not fully comply with their agreement—was twenty-six of the regular troops, twelve being the entire number of the militia; two women and twelve children—in all fifty-two. The children were placed in a baggage-wagon, and fell victims to the tomahawk of a single merciless savage, after the troops had surrendered. Capt. Wells was among the slain. Capt. Heald and his wife were also wounded, as also were Lieutenant and Mrs. Helm.

The next day the fort was plundered and burnt, and the prisoners were distributed in various directions. The family of Mr. Kinzie were taken across to St. Joseph, in a canoe, and subsequently to Detroit. In due time the prisoners were ransomed, and found their way to their eastern friends. No effort was made to re-establish the fort during the war. In 1816 it was rebuilt under the direction of Capt. Bradley. It continued to be occupied by a company of troops till 1837, when the Indians having left the country for a long distance west of us, it was abandoned. On a part of the grounds of the fort our magnificent Marine Hospital now stands. The buildings occupied by the officers are most of them standing. To us the object of greatest interest is the old block-house, and we wish here to put in an earnest plea that it may be preserved so long as one log will "lie upon the other." It is about the only relic of "hoary antiquity" in our city worth preserving. It was built thirty-eight years ago, when the whole country was filled with savages. Let it be surrounded with a neat iron fence, that we may be able to illustrate to our children the nature of the defences which the early settlers of Chicago were obliged to adopt. Let the giant arm of modern improvement, if necessary, sweep away every other vestige of Fort Dearborn, but let the shrill scream of the locomotive, as it brings up its long train of cars from the Gulf of Mexico, or rests from its labors after the mighty race of a thousand miles from the Atlantic seaboard, age after age echo around this humble but significant monument of the past.

Our "oldest inhabitant," at least in one view of the subject, is our excellent fellow-citizen, Alderman John H. Kinzie. He was born in Canada, nearly opposite Detroit, and when an infant only a few months old, was brought to this city, by his parents, in 1804. He is a son of John Kinzie, mentioned above as an Indian trader. Mr. Kinzie settled here in that capacity in 1804, when the fort was first built. Our fellow-citizen, Gurdon S. Hubbard, Esq., came here in 1818, and was then in the employ of the American Fur Company, at the head of which was John Jacob Astor. He frequently was in the town for several days or weeks at a time, but neither Mr. Kinzie nor Mr.

Hubbard were settled here permanently till 1833 or 1834. Mr. Kinzie spent his boyhood here, but was afterwards located at Green Bay for many years.

Our oldest *permanent* resident in the city, is Col. R. J. Hamilton. In this view of the case, he is certainly entitled to the honor of being the "oldest inhabitant." He came here April 9th, 1831, and this has been his *home* ever since. G. W. Dole, Esq., came here May 4th, 1831, and P. F. W. Peck, Esq., July 15th of the same year. But though not living in the city limits, A. Clybourne, Esq., has been identified with it, or rather with the place that became Chicago, since August 5th, 1823. He has resided since that time on the west side of the North Branch, about three miles from Lake Street Bridge. The city limits extend north of his residence, on the east side of the river. We have given the dates when each of these gentlemen came to Chicago, and some of the circumstances connected with the claims of each to the important distinction of being the "oldest inhabitant," and here we leave the decision to our readers, satisfied that neither of them would have dared to predict, even ten years ago, what Chicago would be in the year 1854.

So far as we have been able to learn, the "oldest inhabitant" *born* in Chicago, and now living here, is a lady—we beg pardon for saying it—she is an *unmarried lady*. Be not amazed, ye spruce, anxious bachelors, and if you can count your gray hairs by scores, stand aside, for we are quite sure there is no chance for you. She is not only an unmarried lady, but a *YOUNG LADY*, only twenty-two years of age, as she was born in Fort Dearborn in the early part of 1832. We have not the pleasure of her acquaintance, and at the peril of incurring her displeasure, we venture to state that the "oldest *native* inhabitant" of Chicago, a city of more than sixty thousand people, is Miss Ellen Hamilton, the daughter of our good friend Col. R. J. Hamilton.

In 1818, when Gurdon S. Hubbard, Esq., came to Chicago, there were but two white families here. John Kinzie lived on the north side, a little west of where McCormick's factory now stands. Antoine Oulimette, a French trader, who had married an Indian woman, lived near the ground occupied by the freight *dépôt* of the Galena Railroad. The fort was occupied by a detachment of troops under the command of Capt. Bradley. The American Fur Company had trading posts at convenient distances all through this country. At that time only a single schooner, of 300 or 400 tons, was sent round from Buffalo with provisions for the fort, during the summer season.

In the fall of 1828, the Winnebagoes, who inhabited the territory west of us, became restless, and threatened the destruction of the fort. Our fellow-citizen, Gurdon S. Hubbard, Esq., went alone on horseback to the settlements on the Wabash and pro-



cured reinforcements. He was absent only seven days. The Indians were pacified by the presence of a large force under Gen. Atkinson, and very little mischief was done, beyond the murder of a few travellers.

Col. R. J. Hamilton came to this city as above stated in April, 1831. Cook county had been organized the month previous. He soon obtained a high position among his fellow-citizens, and at that time, young and full of energy and vigor, and not the man to shrink from responsibility, we wonder that he was not crushed with the weight of the "blushing honors" that fell to his share of the spoils in the new county of Cook. In the course of the year, he became Judge of Probate, Recorder, County Clerk; discharged gratuitously the duties of Treasurer, and was Commissioner of Schools. The good Colonel would find his hands full were he to fulfil the duties of all these offices at the present time. We have availed ourselves of his early and accurate knowledge of events for most of the facts which are contained in some half dozen of the succeeding paragraphs.

The county of Cook, in 1831, embraced all the territory now included in the counties of Lake, McHenry, Dupage, Will, and Iroquois. At that time Fort Dearborn was occupied by two companies of U. S. Infantry, under the command of Major Fowle. The resident citizens were Mr. Elijah Wentworth and family, occupying a house partly log and partly frame, owned by Mr. James Kinzie, and situated on the ground now occupied by Mr. Norton as a lumber yard. Mr. W. kept a tavern, the best in Chicago. In the vicinity of this tavern resided Mr. James Kinzie and family, Mr. William See and family, Mr. Alexander Robinson and family—now living on the Des Plaines—and Mr. Robt. A. Kinzie, who had a store composed of dry goods—a large portion of them Indian goods—groceries, &c., &c. Across the North Branch of the Chicago river, and nearly opposite Mr. Wentworth's tavern, resided Mr. Samuel Miller and family, and with them Mr. John Miller, a brother. Mr. Miller also kept a tavern. On the east side of the South Branch and immediately above the junction with the North Branch, resided Mr. Mark Beaubien and family, who also kept tavern; and a short distance above him on the South Branch resided a Mr. Bourisso, an Indian trader. Between Mark Beaubien's tavern and Fort Dearborn, there were no houses, except a small log cabin, near the foot of Dearborn street, and used as an Indian trading house. Near the garrison and immediately south, on the property sold by James H. Collins, Esq., to the Illinois Central Railroad Company, was the residence of J. B. Beaubien and family, who was connected with the American Fur Company in the Indian trade. He had near his residence a store, containing such goods as were

suitable to that business. A short distance south of him on the lake was a house, then unoccupied.

On the north side of the river and immediately opposite the garrison, stood the old "Kinzie House," as it was commonly called, which was also then unoccupied, and in a very dilapidated state. A short distance above on the main branch of the river, and on the ground occupied by the Chicago and Galena Railroad Company, stood what had been the Government Agency house, and known to the "oldest inhabitants" as "Cobweb Castle." That was then unoccupied, Dr. Wolcott, the Government Agent, having died the fall before. In its vicinity were several small log buildings for the accommodation of the blacksmith, interpreter, and others connected with the Agency. The blacksmith then occupying one of the buildings, was a Mr. McGee, now living in Dupage county. Billy Caldwell, the principal chief of the Ottawa, Pottawatomie and Chippewa Indians, occupied another. He was then Interpreter for the Agency. Col. Thomas J. V. Owen, who had been the winter before appointed to succeed the late Dr. Wolcott, had not then taken up his residence in Chicago; G. Kercheval, who was sub-Agent, was then here. Dr. E. Harmon, the father of C. L. Harmon, and James Harrington, father of the late Jas. Harrington of Geneva, Kane county, had taken up their residence here, and were making claims on the lake shore—Dr. Harmon where Mrs. Clark now lives, and Mr. H. immediately north and adjoining.

Here we have some dozen families in the spring of 1831—only TWENTY-THREE YEARS AGO—constituting, with the officers and soldiers in the fort, the entire population of Chicago. Now the city numbers more than sixty thousand, and its blocks of splendid stores, its fine churches, its railroads, and extensive commerce, are the wonder and admiration of all. We have never spent much time in reading works of fiction, but if there is anything in that dreamy literature more astonishing than these facts, we certainly have never seen it.

¶ In June following the garrison, by order of the Secretary of War, was abandoned by the troops, and left in charge of Col. T. J. V. Owen, the Government Agent of the Ottawa, Pottawatomie, and Chippewa Indians; and by September, the fort, together with the old Kinzie House and the one on the lake shore, (formerly vacant) were filled with emigrant families. In the latter part of September, the payment of the Indian annuities was made by Col. Owen. There were present on that occasion about four thousand Indians, and among them was a deputation of eight Sauk and Fox Indians belonging to the band of the celebrated BLACK HAWK. Their object was to induce the Ottawas, Pottawatomes and Chippewas, to join them in their contem-

plated invasion of the Rock River country and to wrest it from the whites, who they alleged had obtained it fraudulently. Had it not been for the influence of Billy Caldwell, little doubt was entertained in the success of the mission. Caldwell was well advised of the weakness of the Indians, and the strength of the Government, and by his influence and representations, prevented the alliance. After the payment, a scene of drunkenness, debauchery and violence occurred, such as is never witnessed, except at an Indian payment.

During the fall, in the month of November, the schooner *Marengo*, belonging to Oliver Newbury of Detroit, arrived. She had been looked for with much anxiety for some weeks. She encountered a heavy gale on Lake Michigan, which was just subsiding on her arrival. There being no harbor, she anchored out in the lake, more than half a mile from the shore, nearly in front of the fort, where she remained until the lake had become sufficiently calm to unload. This could only be done by the aid of small boats, crossing the bar at the mouth of the river which then emptied into the lake near the foot of Randolph street. The "*Marengo*" was commanded by Captain Stuart, a veteran sailor who had long been in the employment of Mr. Newbury. The *Telegraph*, which arrived in July, and the *Marengo*, were the only arrivals during the season, except the one that transported the troops to Green Bay. The principal part of the population of Chicago during the winter of 1831-2 occupied the quarters in the garrison, and were ministered to, in the way of creature comforts, by our estimable citizen, Geo. W. Dole, who was the only merchant then in Chicago, except Mr. R. A. Kinzie at "*Wolf Point*," which was the name given to the "*settlement*" at the junction of the North and South Branches, where Mr. Norton's lumber yard is now located.

The winter was long and intensely cold, and the population of the surrounding country so sparse, that no traveller could be found sufficiently reckless to traverse it. There were then *no mail routes, post roads, nor Post Office at Chicago*, and the only means its inhabitants had of knowing anything of the world was by sending a half-breed Indian once in two weeks to Niles, in Michigan, to procure all the papers, both old and new, that could be had. "Great caution," says Col. Hamilton, "was exercised in reading the oldest *first*, that we might be properly advised of events in the *world* as they occurred. The trip was made on foot, and usually occupied a week. The arrival of '*the mail*' was an event of quite as much interest then as it is now; but notwithstanding our exclusion from the world we were not unhappy, and doubtless enjoyed ourselves as well as its inhabitants now do."

A debating society was formed, composed of most of the male inhabitants

of the fort, over which presided our venerable fellow-citizen, J. B. Beaubien, and with much efficiency and dignity. Although not very conversant with "Jefferson's Manual," he had not occasion to use it, as every member was disposed to be orderly, and behave himself; and each and all felt bound to contribute as much as possible to the general sum of knowledge and usefulness. To vary the amusement, a dance was occasionally got up at the house of Mark Beaubien, Esq.; and for those who had no taste for such amusement, a religious meeting was held generally once a week in the fort, by the late Mark Noble, Jr., and his wife and two daughters, and Mrs. R. J. Hamilton, who were all members of the Methodist Episcopal Church.

These early meetings had a most happy effect upon all within their influence. Mrs. R. J. Hamilton, first wife of Col. H., contributed very much to their interest, as she was a lady of great intelligence, enlarged views, and devoted piety. She was for many years among the first in all religious and benevolent enterprises.

Col. Hamilton pays a just tribute to the zeal and piety of Mr. Noble. He was the principal speaker at all these meetings, and his exertions in the cause of truth were greatly blessed. He was a man of practical common sense, and large experience, and was fitted for a "standard-bearer" on the borders of civilization. It will be seen that the Methodists were, here as almost everywhere, the pioneers in Christianity. They did not, however, establish the first church, as will be seen further on in our sketches.

Thus passed the winter of 1831-2. On the approach of spring, it was announced that "Black Hawk," a Sauk chief, was moving up Rock River, with about five hundred Sauk and Fox Indians, with demonstrations of a hostile character, unless he could be permitted to remain on the lands formerly ceded to the United States. The rumor was confirmed by the arrival of the Hon. Richard M. Young, at Fort Dearborn, who was then one of the circuit judges of the State, and within whose judicial district Chicago was at that time. Judge Young was accompanied by Benjamin Mills, Esq., then leading member of the Illinois bar, and our late fellow-citizen Col. Strode, all from Galena. They had come by the way of Dixon, and from the conduct of the Indians assembled there, were convinced of their hostile intentions. Before the adjournment of the court other intelligence arrived confirmatory of these statements. The Indians continued to move up Rock River until they arrived at the Kishwaukie, a tributary of Rock River, where they made a halt. An expedition was organized under the command of Major Stillman of Peoria, from the counties of Tazewell and Peoria, principally with the object, as then understood, to watch the movements of the Indians and protect the few settlements on the extreme frontier from their depredations; but with the further understanding, that they were not to strike the first blow. They proceeded up Rock River until within a few miles of the Indian encamp-



ment, and by some want of discipline and caution, an action was brought on against a portion of the Indians, which resulted in a disastrous defeat and total route of the whole of Major Stillman's force. Almost immediately after the defeat of Major Stillman, the Indians, in bands, made a descent upon the settlements on Fox River, at Hollenback's and Holderman's Grove, and at other points on the river where there were settlements, burning the houses and destroying the property; and had it not been for the friendly interposition and warnings of Sha-bo-nee, an Ottawa Chief, who, till within a few years, lived at Shabbona's Grove, many of the people must have been massacred. Some barely escaped, being sufficiently near to witness the smoke ascending from the burning houses—what few inhabitants were in the surrounding country made their way to Chicago to seek safety in Fort Dearborn, and by the 10th of May the fort contained a population of near seven hundred souls, two-thirds of whom were women and children. This great disproportion of women and children was occasioned by the male heads of families taking their provisions and whatever else they could muster to drive their stock into the settled parts of the country, mostly on the Wabash. Col. Owen, the government agent, was then in charge of the fort, and no effort on his part was spared to accommodate all that came. He had himself a large family and occupied the commander's quarters, but he confined himself to a single room, and gave up the rest to those who came in from the country. Gholson Kercheval and Col. Hamilton were appointed quartermasters to arrange quarters equitably among the people, and in many cases fifteen and twenty occupied a room that would not more than comfortably accommodate a family of four or five persons.

Information was again received through "Billy Caldwell," by Col. Owen, that the hostile chiefs were tampering with the Ottawa, Pottawatamie and Chippewa Indians belonging to his agency, and that in consequence of the success in the fight at Kishwaukie, many of the young men were strongly inclined to join them. It was with difficulty the chiefs could restrain them. A consultation was had with Messrs. Robinson and Caldwell, both influential chiefs among the Indians, who advised an immediate council with the principal chiefs, together with some of their young men, at which Col. Owen was to address them, and let them know distinctly that if they formed any alliance or connection with Black Hawk, or furnished him men or aid of any kind, the Government would hold them to a strict accountability for it, and would punish them severely. The council was held at or near the place where the Rev. Mr. Richardson's church now stands, in the north division of the city. There were present a number of the chiefs of the United Nations,

including Caldwell and Robinson, and Col. Owen and Col. R. J. Hamilton, on the part of the Government. The council was opened by a few remarks from Caldwell to the chiefs. Blackfoot, a chief of considerable influence and power, then addressed the council. He recounted many of their grievances, and charged the government with gross injustice towards them, and concluded by remarking that now was a good time to redress them. His speech was evidently well received by the young men. Col. Owen followed him, and his boldness, energy, and the scathing rebuke he administered to Blackfoot changed the whole current of feeling against the chief. The Indians retired for a few minutes, and then returned presenting their hands to Col. Owen, declaring their friendship for the Government, and offering to furnish a hundred braves to march against Black Hawk, if desired. Thus terminated a council, small and insignificant as it may now seem to have been, yet it was productive of important results. To the unwavering friendship of Caldwell, and the bold, energetic conduct of Col. Owen before the council, the inhabitants of Chicago were indebted for their safety in the contest which followed.

Late in the month of May, 1832, a small force, consisting of twenty-five men, was organized in the fort, under the command of Captain J. B. Brown, with Captain Joseph Naper and Col. R. J. Hamilton, for the purpose of securing the frontier on Fox River, and to ascertain from personal observation the extent of the depredations committed on the property of the inhabitants. It was also intended to render aid to the inhabitants settled on the Dupage River, who had assembled at Mr. James Walker's, where Plainfield now stands, and erected a small fort for their protection. After leaving the fort on the Dupage, where they had remained a day, rendering such assistance as was desired, the expedition proceeded to Holderman's Grove. The Indians had but recently left it, after having destroyed all the personal property found in the house and around the premises, and scattered the fragments about the yard. The provision which was not taken away was destroyed. On the third evening after their departure from Fort Dearborn, the company encamped about three miles from Holderman's Grove, in the direction of Hollenback's Grove on Fox River. Some time before daylight, Mr. G. E. Walker, of Ottawa, arrived at the camp and stated that a man had arrived at that place (Ottawa) and reported that considerable firing had been heard on Indian Creek, about fifteen miles from Ottawa, at the residence of a Mr. Davis, where the families of Davis, Hall, and Pettigrew had assembled for mutual protection, and in a short time afterwards a young man, a son of Mr. Hall's, arrived and confirmed the statement. He also stated that he was at work in the field about a mile from the

house, heard the firing and saw the Indians. Upon receiving this information, Captain Brown immediately marched the company, with all possible dispatch, to Indian Creek, where the firing had been heard. Some five or six, a part of whom had joined the expedition on the route, left it, and returned to afford protection and safety to their respective families. The company arrived at Mr. Davis's residence between nine and ten o'clock, A. M. The scene there, as described by Colonel Hamilton, was the most painful that could well be imagined. Some thirteen dead bodies, composed of the families of Davis, Hall, and Pettigrew, lay in the house and about the yard, consisting of men, women and children, who had been shot, speared, tomahawked, scalped, and mutilated in the most cruel manner. Davis was a blacksmith, and apparently a very athletic man. At the moment of the attack he was in his shop, and started for the house about seventy-five or a hundred yards distance, for the purpose, no doubt, of assisting to protect the families there. He was attacked a short distance from the shop, and from every indication a severe contest ensued.

By his side, or near him, lay a large Kentucky rifle, which had been fired and afterwards used in a hand-to-hand fight, as its stock was much shattered and its breech broken. The bodies were collected and buried as well as they could be under the circumstances; after which the expedition went to Ottawa, where they fell in with Maj. Bailey with a company from Tazewell County, who had been in the late disastrous Stillman expedition against the Indians at Kishwaukie, a part of which, together with Major Bailey, joined Capt. Brown. The whole detachment proceeded to Chicago, under the command of Major Bailey. On the route to Chicago, the guide to the expedition, a half-breed Indian, reported at several points large fresh Indian signs. Much solicitude was felt for the families at Walker's on the Dupage, and all possible expedition was used in getting to that place. Some four or five miles from the fort on the Dupage, and some time after dark, a man by the name of Payne was hailed, who had just come alone from Chicago, and was on his way towards Ottawa. The dangers of the route were made known to him, and efforts were made to retain him with the expedition. He, however, announced himself an ambassador of God, and said he would be safe from any attack of the Indians. It was evident he was partially insane, and he could not be induced to change his purpose. He had a long flowing beard and venerable appearance. He was probably killed the same day, as his head was found two weeks afterwards stuck on a pole in the prairie, and his body some half mile distant from the head. Our fellow-citizen, Gurdon S. Hubbard, Esq., was in the party that found him. Major Bailey and his command encamped the same evening at

the fort on the Dupage, and started early the next morning with the families in the fort, and all their movable effects that could be transported in ox and horse teams, and arrived late in the evening at Chicago, after an absence of ten days. The fort was immediately organized as a military post, and placed under the command of Major Bailey.

Two young ladies by the name of Hall were captured at Indian Creek, and retained for some two weeks, when they were given up by a party of friendly Indians, to Governor Dodge, of Wisconsin. They were treated with great kindness and respect while they were captives. The massacre of the people of Indian Creek occurred on the 21st of May.

In the meantime 3,000 militia were ordered out from Peoria and the counties south of it, and marched to Rock River, where they were joined by a detachment of regular troops from Fort Armstrong, under General Atkinson. A party of one hundred and fifty militia, under the command of Major Dement, fell in with a detachment of Indians, commanded by Black Hawk himself, somewhere between Rock River and Galena. An action ensued, in which the Indians were routed. The main army continued to move up Rock River, around the head waters of which it was said the Indians were concentrated. On the 21st of July, Gen. Henry, commanding an advanced party of the army, came up with the Indians between the Blue Mounds and the Wisconsin River. The troops were formed into a hollow square, and all attempts to break the line by the savages were in vain. A general charge was finally made by the troops, when the Indians were forced to retreat with a loss of between fifty and sixty of their number.

The Indians continued their retreat to the Northwest, crossed the Wisconsin River, and moved up the east bank of the Mississippi. About fifty miles above Prairie du Chien, they were again overtaken and completely routed, with the loss of one hundred and fifty warriors. This victory completely broke the power of Black Hawk, and ended the war. He was captured by a party of Winnebagoes, and delivered up to the officers of the United States at Prairie du Chien, on the 27th of August, 1832. Early in the season Gen. Scott was ordered to leave the seaboard and gather up all the troops on his route westward, and repair to Chicago. He arrived here on the 8th of July, but a worse scourge than the Indians—the Asiatic cholera—had overtaken him. The havoc it made among the troops was terrible, and his arrival produced the greatest consternation among the few people who then resided in Chicago. The Indians were entirely defeated before he was able to join the army.

On the 21st of September, 1832, all these difficulties were arranged by a treaty made at Fort Armstrong, (Rock Island), by



Gen. Scott and Gov. Reynolds, with the Sauk and Fox Indians, by which they relinquished all their claim to Eastern Iowa, and agreed to move west of the Missouri. Annuities were to be paid to the several bands, and a reservation of forty miles square was made to the principal chief, Keokuk, and a portion of his followers.

We are indebted to P. F. W. Peck, Esq., for the facts contained in several of the succeeding paragraphs:

In July, A. D. 1831, the schooner *Telegraph*, of Ashtabula, Ohio, Capt. Joseph and John Naper, arrived at Chicago with a number of families, their own among the number, who soon after left and settled the place now known as Naperville. The place took its name from Capt. Joseph Naper, he being the first white settler upon its present site.

Mr. Peck left New-York City in the month of May of that year, (1831), with a small stock of goods for a "market," having previously determined upon a Western Home. Accidentally, becoming acquainted with Captain Joseph Naper at Buffalo, at which place the schooner was then loading for "Fort Dearborn," (Chicago), that gentleman, with characteristic frankness, invited Mr. Peck to embark with him and seek a home in that remote region, then but little known, where Capt. N. had previously determined to remove with his family. Mr. P. readily accepted, and left Buffalo with Capt. N. about the 1st of June, A. D. 1831, and arrived at Chicago after a passage of two months from the city of New-York.

Probably many years prior to this arrival, no structure of any kind had been added to the small number of log-cabins which, with the buildings of the garrison, constituted the town of Chicago; and the only addition to its growth during that year was a small log-store for Mr. Peck, shortly after his arrival, and which he owned and occupied until late in the fall of that year. It was built near the Garrison, a few rods northwest of the land on which Colonel Beaubien formerly resided, and which James H. Collins, Esq., recently sold to the Ill. C. C. R. Co.

It was after some deliberation and advice that Mr. P. determined to locate in "the lower village," instead of at "the Point," (west side,) which latter settlement was then, he thinks, rather in the ascendant. Rival feelings to some extent existed at the time between the people of those localities, both contending that they possessed superior advantages for the site of the future village of Chicago.

Shortly before Mr. Peck's arrival, the Canal Commissioners had subdivided into town lots part of Sec. 9, (the Old Town,) and given titles to a few of the lots to different purchasers. "Fort Dearborn" (fractional section 10) was not then subdivided, and much uncertainty existed as to the time and under

what auspices it would ultimately be done. These circumstances very much promoted the interests of land-owners at "Wolf Point."

Mr. P. says, that his young and fertile imagination presented before him, as possible to be built up within a reasonable time, the village church, school-house, doctor's and lawyer's office, a tavern (more fashionable than that kept by "*Jolly Mark*"), a blacksmith, shoemaker and tailor's shop, and a few *painted* stores and dwellings; and that his newly-found home would become a respectable consolidated village at one or the other of these two *extreme settlements*; for then no intermediate lots were considered to be of much importance.

Late in the fall of 1831, Mr. Peck received from New-York, via the Lakes, a stock of goods; with which, and the small stock he had previously in trade, he removed into Naper's settlement, and united in business with Capt. Joseph Naper, and remained with him until the Spring of 1832, when the Sauk war drove the people into Chicago.

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#### Art. VI.—DESTINY OF THE SLAVE STATES.\*

WE are at a critical juncture in public affairs. The world is moving forward with enterprise and progress such as has never been before conceived of. Nearly \$200,000,000 are being added annually to the gold currency of the world. The whole resources of Australia, California and China, with its 300,000,000 of people, and with more accumulated capital and wealth than any one nation, have been heretofore locked up from the rest of mankind. The treaties made with England, France, and the United States, a few years ago, have broken the chain with which they have surrounded themselves. This, together with the rebellion now in progress, will unfold the resources of that mighty empire, and produce a change in the distribution of wealth, equal to that produced by the discovery of America upon Spain and Europe. Where is all this vast trade and accumulation in gold to pass through the channels of commerce into the exchanges of the world? It must concentrate upon the Pacific coast and force its way across the Isthmus of Panama into the Gulf of Mexico, and thence into the Atlantic, that great reservoir basin for the civilized nations of the earth. The Atlantic will be to the world what the Mediterranean was to the known world under the reign of the Antonies in Rome. Again, the Gulf of Mexico lies between the great region drained by the Amazon on one side and the Mississippi on the other. These are the two

\* From the *Richmond Enquirer*.

greatest valleys upon the face of the earth, and capable of the greatest productions. It is not saying too much to say that if properly developed, they are capable of producing what is produced at present by the whole civilized world. The former is almost in a state of nature, and the latter is not yet half developed. The whole country between these two mighty rivers presents the most wonderful region now to be settled up by the enterprise and genius of man. In the progress of the next fifty years, the commerce and trade that must concentrate upon the Gulf of Mexico, will far exceed anything that man heretofore dreamed of in his wildest imaginations. The Island of Cuba, from its central position, and its great port of Havana, is the key to all this. The nation that holds Cuba will hold control over the commerce and wealth of this new world.

It is not saying too much to say that if we hold Cuba, in the next fifty years we will hold the destiny of the richest and most increased commerce that ever dazzled the cupidity of man. And with that commerce we can control the power of the world. Give us this, and we can make the public opinion of the world. These two great valleys of the Amazon and the Mississippi are now possessed by two governments of the earth, most deeply interested in African slavery—Brazil and the United States. Cast your eye over the map, and see their vast capacity for production. While the Mississippi, with its tributaries, can carry to market more of the necessities and breadstuffs of life than any portion of the habitable globe, the Amazon can float the wealth of nations upon its bosom in the production of the tropics—the whole intermediate countries between these two great valleys, including the West India Islands, is a region under the plastic hand of a beneficent Providence teeming with the fatness of the richest and most luxuriant productions. In its infancy, and as to capacity to produce, it is, as it were, unknown to the world. Most of it has slumbered for ages in solitary grandeur. How is it to be developed? Think you the Caucasian race can stand to toil and labor under the burning rays of a tropical sun, and sleep in vigor and prosperity under the miasma of its exuberant and mighty plains and swamps? No! its resources are to be finally and fully developed by that race which God in his mercy formed and created for just such regions. Providence lots off the earth to its appropriate races. The camel loves the arid air of Arabia, and the reindeer loves the frozen hills of Lapland. So, in like manner, the black man loves to breathe the humid air of his native swamps, while the white man exults and bounds in the elastic air of his native hills. Where you can combine the administrative governing qualities of the one race together with the patient endurance and physical capacities for low altitudes of the other, you have that perfect system by which the vast trop-

ical regions of the earth are to be developed. Whilst the laboring strata of society is occupied by one race, suited to its exposures, give the other race such a position as will enable them to preserve themselves from those daily and exhausting exposures under which the white race will sink in the tropics. Puling and sickly philanthropy may preach a different doctrine, but, if practised, it will forever consign to a barbarian wilderness some of the fairest portions of the world.

Witness the miserable experiment made by the English and French in the West Indies. Twenty-five years ago, where we saw cultivation bringing forth wealth and refinement with all the elegance of polished life, we see vagrant labor stalking through a desolate land, with hungry and brutal ferocity. This experiment of West India emancipation is worth a thousand theories, and is fast enlightening the reflecting parts of mankind. England feels in its consequences her folly. Everything has taken place exactly as the Duke of Wellington predicted it would in his clear and manly speech against the act of emancipation at the time.

The African race, under a system of domestic servitude, tempered by the principles of Christianity, are themselves raised and benefited in the scale of civilization. The great mass of the poor and needy in all portions of the colder and prolific latitudes, require for their comfort, sugar, coffee, rice, and cotton, and the luxurious productions of tropical regions. When they exchange their labors for these products at cheap rates, it tends to raise themselves in the scale of civilization, by administering to their wants and comforts, and thus tempting them to industry and enterprise, in order that they may be able to enjoy the advantages of various climates. This system acts and reacts upon the different branches of the human family, so as mutually to benefit and bless all by diffusing more equally the comforts of life. Hence it is that these productions of slave labor, in the shape of cotton, by which an abundant and cheap article for clothing the poor and needy, has done more to elevate the great masses, and spread civilization to the lower ranks of society, than all the other causes put together in modern times. So now, if the noble regions to which we have alluded above, were reduced to systematic culture by African labor, governed by the energy and intelligence of the white man, they would more than quadruple the present productions of the comforts and luxuries of life, to diffuse them amongst the poor and needy of the higher latitudes of the earth, and thus mutually benefit and bless both regions. This is the true progress of civilization. And it is thus that Providence ever works upon the destinies of men. Apparent evils are the greatest blessings. It is by war you conquer the barbarian race, and by slavery you reduce them to labor and the arts of civilized life. Slavery and war have thus



been the two great forerunners of civilization. This modern crusade and pharisaical declamation against domestic servitude will run out, as did the fanatical crusades of old, and society will again resume its reason and common sense, as the best guides in the practical affairs of life.

If we have wisdom and enlightened statesmanship to direct our country, we can turn back the tide, and by successful and triumphant experiment, make a public opinion for modern times.

Everything is at present on a most critical turn in Europe. The Emperor of the French stands upon a mine that may explode any day. A convulsion there, or in Turkey, would shake the world.

The true policy of our government, at present, is to stand still, but be prepared to strike if it can be done successfully. If Europe is thrown into confusion, all American affairs will inevitably fall under our control. We must do nothing to hasten events. Time is doing its work for us more triumphantly than ever the Roman eagles did for Rome in her proudest and palmiest days.

A general rupture in Europe would force upon us the undisputed sway of the Gulf of Mexico and the West Indies, with all their rich and mighty productions. Guided by our genius and enterprise, a new world would rise there, as it did before under the genius of Columbus. With Cuba and St. Domingo, we could control the productions of the tropics, and with them the commerce of the world, and with that the power of the world.

The world will fall back upon African labor, governed and owned in some shape or form by the white man, as it has always been. This is the only system which can reduce to thorough cultivation the mighty regions of the Amazon and the great tropical valleys of the Gulf of Mexico. The world will have to choose between that and its remaining an everlasting wilderness. Under African labor, properly owned, the poor and the needy of the more rigid climates of the earth will be enabled to receive and enjoy the comforts and the blessings of its necessary and luxurious productions. Under this system, the industrious but poor laborers of Northern climates can be enabled to enjoy the coffee, rice, sugar, and cotton for cheap clothes, from regions where, if they were compelled to toil and work for it, under the burning rays of a tropical sun, they would sink and perish away.

But England complains of the humanity of such a system! And this is that England, the iron heel of whose power had but recently crushed the Irishman into the dust of the earth upon his native soil, and whose gigantic and bloody footsteps upon the plains of India have made whole empires groan and travail under the most heartless and grinding slavery that the indignation of man has ever painted. Such complaints from such

quarter is the most arrant hypocrisy and sanctimonious impudence the world has ever witnessed.

And are we, a great people moved forward in the progress of empire, to be duped by such canting sentimentalities as this? If we are, then will we deserve to wear the yoke of England again. If she has lost the absolute sway of the sceptre over us, she can restore her through her preaching and this mock humanity of her ethereal and sublimated morality.

No! we have a higher destiny than this to fulfil. We, too, are in the hands of a superintending Providence, to work out the real regeneration of mankind.

Take the earth that God has given us, and by labor and industry suited to it, make every portion of it bloom and blossom as a garden to the peace of man. But the objection is often urged that there is danger in extending our territories, and adding new people in our progress. Whether for good or for evil, it is vain to oppose it. Our destiny is onward, until many more, rich and prolific regions are to be wrapt under the broad folds of our national banner. The spread of our population and peculiar organization will be more rapid and triumphant than the conquest of the Roman eagles in their proudest day, or the British lion upon the Burampoota or the Ganges. Cautious conservatism may declaim against it, but it will be of no avail. As well might you attempt to turn the angry wave of the Mississippi, by stretching wickerwork across it. The great duty of the statesman is to direct it into proper channels, and let it flow on without eruption, if possible.

In a few years there will be no investment for the two hundred millions in the annual increase of gold, on a large scale, so profitable, and so necessary, as the development and cultivation of the tropical regions, now slumbering in rank and wild luxuriance.

If the slaveholding race in these States are but true to themselves, they have a great destiny before them. Heretofore, the great difficulty in civilizing the barbarian races of the world has been to procure cheap and abundant clothing for them. A naked race must necessarily be a wild one. To Christianize or civilize a man, you must first clothe his nakedness. In the three millions of bags of cotton the slave labor annually throws upon the world for the poor and naked, we are doing more to advance civilization and the refinement of life than all the canting philanthropists of New and Old England will do in centuries. All we want is wisdom and thorough statesmanship to guide and direct us, and we may yet be a chosen people for great and wise purposes.

## ART. VII.—AN AMERICAN VIEW OF THE EASTERN QUESTION.

[Wm. H. Trescot, of South Carolina, author of the "Diplomatic Policy of the Revolution," has prepared a very able pamphlet upon the Turkish question, in an American point of view. We make an extract, and will publish the whole paper in our next number, if no objection be raised by the publisher. The views in the main are eminently just and wise.]

WHEN, during one of the late debates in Parliament, the Earl of Aberdeen described the condition of England, by saying that the nation was not at war, but was drifting to war, his words might have been applied, with a wider and truer significance, to the state of all Europe for the last forty years. And the history of this time, when it comes to be written, will show that never has European diplomacy been more wisely or actively employed, than during this very period, in postponing the dreaded consummation. But it has proved beyond the power of human wisdom to control the issues of human passion; and after a peace of half a century, partially broken, it is true, by revolutionary struggles, a whole continent is again in arms. The Danube, whose shores have re-echoed the war-cry of the Dacian barbarian, and the tramp of the Roman legion; upon whose turbid waters have gleamed the victorious light of Sobroski's sword, and the waning glory of the Turkish crescent, runs again, exulting to the Euxine, red with Christian blood; and the banners of England, France and Russia, shaken from their trophied drapery, again "stream like meteors to the troubled air." The military salute fired over the last of Napoleon's marshals, has scarcely died upon the ear; the funeral pomp that marshalled England's great captain to the field of his only defeat, has not yet faded to the eye; Metternich and Nesselrode, the great draftsmen of the map of modern Europe, are still alive, but already has their work grown old. The foundations they laid have been broken up; the balance of power they adjusted is disturbed, and the world trembles in apprehension of a bloodier convulsion and a wilder change than in their day rocked the thrones of ancient empires, and inscribed on the ensanguined battle-roll of history the names of Moscow and Waterloo.

The late news from Europe not only proves the existence of war, by the report of battles and the formal declaration of hostilities, but it justifies the gravest apprehensions of a protracted and universal war. The mission of Prince George of Mecklenberg, the last effort of the Czar to avoid or postpone the crisis, has failed. And this must be considered, on the part of the allied powers, as a declaration that they are resolved to make a new and wider settlement of the Eastern question, before they lay down their arms. They will not accept the *status quo ante bellum* as the basis of an arrangement; and as Russia cannot be

expected to admit any other, it would seem that upon this contest her whole future power and policy are staked. Austria and Prussia have at last come to an explicit understanding. But by signing with France and England the much talked of protocol, they have not committed themselves to the Western powers, but have simply indicated their readiness, in their own time and in their own interest, to abandon a neutrality which, in the interest of others, sooner or later, they would not be permitted to maintain. The insurrection in Greece, unquestionably encouraged by Russia, has become too formidable for the control of the Greek Government; has already embroiled Greece with Turkey; added another complication to the embarrassments of the Sultan, by forcing him to order all the Greek residents—neither few nor feeble for mischief—to leave his dominions, and may eventually compel an armed demonstration on the part of England and France. Sweden is evidently uneasy, and is already taking measures which look suspiciously towards the abandonment of her neutrality in the interest of Russia. Denmark, bound to Russia by the aid rendered in the affair of the Dutchies, has manifested very clearly to Sir Charles Napier her dissatisfaction at the presence of the combined fleets in the Baltic. The revolutionists of Lombardy and Hungary are alert, organized and almost desperate; while among the Turks themselves there is a strengthening discontent with the Sultan's reforms. "Menshikoff," say they, "came and asked for the Koran, and said, 'Strike out these texts.' The French and English come, and they say, 'Throw this book into the Bosphorus.'"<sup>55</sup>\*

\* Since these introductory remarks were written, some modification has taken place in the relations of the European powers, between themselves. I have, however, left these observations as they stand, because no change in the position of the leading powers of Europe affects the argument attempted in the following pages, which rests entirely upon the past history of England and the diplomatic correspondence already exchanged. If the news be true that Austria and Prussia have joined in a treaty with the allied powers, one of two results seems to be certain: either, 1, that any marked and permanent success over Russia will dissolve a coalition representing such divergent interests as belong to the varied policies of England, France, Austria and Prussia; or, 2, that the influence of Austria and Prussia will be used to facilitate a settlement which will compromise Russia as little as possible. The history of Europe proves that the more extensive a coalition, the more brittle is its bond. Prussia has more than once before this shown England what little obligation interest attaches to the most solemn treaties, and England has occasionally profited by the lesson. Besides which, the treaty, as reported in the papers, scarcely goes beyond the obligations of the protocol, and these obligations are in reference solely to the interests of Germany, as they may be endangered by the progress of the war. Indeed, some of the English papers have already said that this treaty is but the introduction to a renewal of negotiations on a new basis, and one adds: "While we are calculating upon the certainty of all the great powers being compactly allied against Russian policy, the Emperor of Russia has probably succeeded in changing the issue, and the controversy will be no longer as to the evacuation of the Turkish dominions, but on the recurrence to the *status quo*, or to a re-distribution of territory with the four powers divided on the question."



Lamentable as is this state of things, it is scarcely surprising. Events for the last forty years have been bringing on this war slowly, but surely, and nothing but the revolutionary dangers incident to general hostilities in Europe, have preserved peace so long among the rival nations. And it is therefore impossible to appreciate the present disturbed condition of Europe, or even to approximate towards a reasonable opinion as to its probable results, without going further back than the recent controversy in Turkey.

The Congress of Vienna undertook no less a task than the reconstruction of Europe; for the French revolution and its consequences interposed a great gulf between the Europe of 1815 and that defined in the treaties of Westphalia and Utrecht. The European system came out of the wars of 1800-1815, essentially changed, not merely in its relations, but in its very composition. Four new facts had been established, which must be assumed as the necessary basis of any future political arrangements. They were:—1. The extinction of the old German empire, which was, in truth, the centre of the former system. 2. The astonishing development of Russia. 3. The consolidation of the British power in India, and consequent gigantic growth of her commercial influence; and 4. The presence, in every State of Europe, of an active, organized and radical revolutionary party. It would be difficult to find in the proceedings of Vienna any provision against the necessary consequence of such a condition of affairs. For, 1st, Instead of providing some substitute for the old centre furnished by the German empire, the Congress of Vienna left Germany divided into two factions—Austria and Prussia—supported by a crowd of small States, feeding their interests by a parasitical devotion to one or the other, and both striving for the autocracy of modern Germany. 2. Instead of placing some one strong power between Russia and Western Europe, Russia was allowed to incorporate enough of Poland to bring her in contact with Prussia, as she was with Austria, and thus placed in position to play upon the jealousy or weakness of either, to set one against the other, or to control both. 3d. Instead of attempting to create some balance against the enormous and overgrown commercial power of England, France was both morally and physically diminished, and the commercial interests of Great Britain strengthened by the creation of a new kingdom out of Belgium and Holland, where English influence would be dominant. And lastly, while organizing a sort of royal police over the reforming spirit of Europe, the Congress added fresh fuel to the smoulder-

Besides the unsatisfactory nature of this condition of things, Greece is occupied by French troops, England seems likely to follow the same policy with Denmark, and the *Times* is busily employed in fomenting the differences between the Swedish Government and the people excited against Russia, in hope of obtaining a restoration of Finland.

ing fire of the Italian revolutionists, by the most arbitrary and offensive violation of national feeling. Genoa, the superb, was degraded into the provincial sea-port of a second-rate sovereignty; and Venice, the bride of the sea, submitted to the coarse grasp of an Austrian subaltern. Whether the actual solution of the difficult questions then calling for settlement was the only practical one, ought to have been better known to the statesmen of that day, than it can be to students of this. But the results are ours, and are certain. The Congress of Vienna has proved little better than an armistice, and from St. Petersburg to Naples, from Paris to Constantinople, the last forty years have developed an agitated life of change, confusion, and revolution. Not only has much of the work of 1815 been undone, but it has been destroyed by its own creators. To use the strong language of Count Ficquelmont, "The two acts of the Congress of Vienna, calculated to exercise the greatest influence on the future of Central Europe, were the re-construction of Poland, and the creation of a kingdom of the low countries. These two new political bodies have been destroyed by the same powers who most largely contributed to their creation. It is Russia who willed, I will not say the restoration, but the re-construction of a Poland—it is Russia who has been brought to destroy her own work. It is England who labored most earnestly in the creation of the kingdom of the low countries, and took the new State under her special protection. It was the illustrious warrior to whose genius she owed so many victories, to whom was committed the organization of the military system of the new State, which England wished to erect into her first line of defence against France. This territory, circled by citadels, secured the communication between the armies of England and Germany. And it was England who eagerly seized the first occasion to destroy her own handiwork."\*

The absence of any real German unity has given play to rivalry between Austria and Prussia, dangerous, not only to themselves, but to some of the gravest European interests—opened a field for the exhibition of the miserable folly of the Frankfort Parliament, and permitted the dishonest and disgraceful invasion of the rights of Denmark, in the Dutchies of Schleswig and Holstein.

France, Italy, and Austria, have been weakened and distracted by the fiercest civil commotion; and the present condition of Europe, in contrast with the provisions of the diplomacy of 1815, points, with painful emphasis, the moral of human foresight. One fact remains, indeed, unchanged: England and Russia were the controlling authorities of Vienna, and after half a century of change and controversy, they now front each

\* "Lord Palmerston l'Angleterre et le continent," vol. ii., p. 3.

other, in armed hostility, the rival powers of Europe. But how wide the difference between the course of their respective policies, and their resulting positions! With the exception of the United States, it may safely be said that Russia is the only power in the world with a fixed policy, and a constant progress. England has strength, but she needs it all to hold her own. Her immense commercial development has given to her foreign policy a mercantile rather than a political character, and shifting her conduct to suit her interests, she has been forced to keep the police of Europe in the interest of Manchester and Liverpool. Russia, on the contrary, has devoted near two centuries of astute and systematic diplomacy to one idea—the extension of her empire to Constantinople. Twenty years have never passed, since her first step towards the Bosphorus, that she has not taken another in advance. The fall of markets has not checked her progress—the complications of Parliamentary strife have not disturbed her course—she has moved steadily on, “unchanged through all—unchangingly.” And not forgetting her object, she has yet contrived, not only to do justice, but to do efficient service, in Europe, to the cause of justice. In the case of Greece, as far as England was concerned, the Czar acted both wisely and too well. In the contest between Denmark and the Dutchies, he vindicated, efficiently and promptly, the treaties of Europe, while Lord Palmerston finessed England into a state of faithless imbecility. During the struggle in Austria, when the future fortunes of all Europe were compromised by a rash revolution, and while the same Lord Palmerston was contriving a modified policy which would have saved the Italian republicans, at the expense of the Hungarian, the Czar ended the contest by an armed interference, which preserved both to the Austrian crown. Of course it would be easy to show a direct interest, on the part of Russia, in every one of these questions; but who can deny the wisdom of a policy which, without weakening its own strength, made Russia the natural and necessary support of the conservatism of the world? It is true that Russia has systematically and successfully encroached on Turkey. Forced, by the character of her possessions, to seek an outlet into the world of commerce, confined in the Baltic by States whose rights she was bound to respect, and has respected, there was but one direction in which she could advance. Now, on this subject, if there is any people in the world who should avoid the cant of English *commercial* conservatism, we are that people. The history of the world is the history of encroachment, of invasion, of wrong, if you so will. “It must be that offences come,” but so Him only, who knoweth the whole counsel of God, is it to say: “Woe unto him by whom the offence cometh.” This all history teaches; the strong and weak will not lie

down together. You cannot bring into contact an earnest, living will, and a feeble, effete nature, without the absorption of the one into the other. Place England alongside of India, the United States by Mexico and Cuba, Russia by Turkey, and a half century of diplomacy or war will not, cannot, prevent the inevitable result. The first principle of life is progress. As one of our own poets has well said—

"This, the true sign of ruin to a race—  
It undertakes no march, and day by day  
Drowns in camp, or with a laggard's pace  
Walks sentry o'er possessions that decay :  
Destined with sensible waste to fleet away ;—  
For the first secret of continued power  
Is the continued conquest."—SIMMS.

We propose, therefore, to review rapidly the relations of England and Russia to Turkey, since the Congress of Vienna, in order to appreciate the value of their present relative positions. Turkey has never been considered as forming an element of the European balance of power. In 1791 Burke said : "He had never heard it said before, that the Turkish Empire was ever considered as any part of the balance of power in Europe. They had nothing to do with European policy—they considered themselves as wholly Asiatic. What had these worse than savages to do with the powers of Europe, but to spread war, destruction, and pestilence, among them? The ministry and policy which should give these people any weight in Europe, would deserve all the bans and curses of posterity. All that was holy in religion, all that was moral and humane, demanded an abhorrence of everything which tended to extend the power of the cruel and wasteful empire. Any Christian power was to be preferred to these destructive savages."

It would be interesting to trace the policy of Europe towards the Turks, from the time when, to the horror of Christendom, Francis the First made an ally of Solyman against Charles the Fifth, to the present day, when the Koran finds its safest refuge under the shadow of St. George's cross, but such a sketch would interfere too largely with our present purpose. It is sufficient now, that at the Congress of Vienna which terminated the long and fierce contest, at the commencement of which Mr. Burke used the memorable words which we have just quoted, the Sultan was not represented. He had not then entered the circle of civilized nations, and according to one of the ablest historians of that Congress, "the balance of power in the East was not confided to Congress."\*

At the close of 1815, England was unquestionably the dominant power of the world—a great position, doubtless, but one

\* Flassan Cong. de Vienne, vol. ii. 114.



which, in the history of empires, no nation has retained long, or held more than once. Her material resources were almost incalculable; her armies in the highest discipline, and brilliant with the trophies of a hundred victories; her navies floated upon the subject waters of almost every sea. In close alliance with her old companions, the States of the Baltic, she controlled the Northern Ocean and the shores of Germany; of the new kingdom of the low countries she had made a causeway into the heart of Europe; while in possession of Gibraltar and Corfu and Malta, she threatened the Italian provinces of Austria, and claimed the Mediterranean as a subject lake. Her colonies, each a link in the long chain of her commercial dependencies, girdled the globe, and bracing her strength, served also as conductors of her influence. Such power, Russia only could resist, because, except in the case of a general coalition, she was defended by all Europe, and through Turkey she had the means of offensive operations, without the necessity of violating the rights of her nearest neighbors. To this conflict Russia has resolutely addressed herself. Since 1815 there have been three questions directly affecting Turkey, in the solution of which Russia and England have been immediate parties. The Greek insurrection—the war of 1828, between Russia and Turkey, terminated by the treaty of Adrianople—and the revolt of the Egyptian Pacha, or what is known as the Eastern question of 1841. Now, this whole series of transactions, (and among them we should include the colonization of Algiers as another illustration of the same principles,) indicated very clearly the position in which Europe, under the lead of England, intended to place the Turkish Empire. They established, first, that Turkey was not able to maintain her own integrity; and, secondly, that the European powers would modify her boundaries, or sustain her provincial authority as suited their own interests, not hers. In other words, that Turkey was only a legal fiction, in the name of which certain territory should be held for the joint benefit of the great powers; the respective shares of each other's influence to be determined by their own diplomatic relations. More than this, the independence of Greece, and the treaty of Adrianople, the moderation of which must fairly be attributed to Russia herself, established distinctly the principle and policy of a progressive encroachment upon the Turkish Empire. For the freedom of Greece rested on the principle of Christian resistance to the oppressive power of Turkey, and its natural and logical inference promised the same privilege to Albania, Thessalia, and the neighboring provinces, whenever they could organize a like resistance. Indeed, the unwise limitation of the boundaries of the new kingdom, and the refusal to annex Candia to Greece, where she naturally belongs, is to be attributed simply to the timid selfishness

of the mediating powers: to which of those powers selfishness was most specially to be credited, may be inferred from the offer of Candia to England in the late famous secret correspondence. While Greece was thus taken from Turkey, and, instead of being made strong enough for independent life, was placed in a condition of miserable dependence on Europe, the treaty of Adrianople regulated anew another portion of the Turkish territory. For, by its provisions, Moldavia and Wallachia were elevated into a *quasi* independence, placed under the immediate influence of Russia, and diplomatized into a position whence they must either degenerate into mere Russian provinces, or develop into the proportions of a new and independent Christian State. Of course, such a solution of these partial questions brought on worse complication. The utter weakness of Turkey, ascertained by Europe, was soon made manifest in its own provinces. Mehemet Ali, the Pacha of Egypt, who had rendered great services to the Sultan during the Greek insurrection, was rewarded by the further addition to his government of the island of Candia. Wiser and stronger than his master, he too resolved on independence. A series of victories, rapidly and brilliantly achieved, alarmed the great powers of Europe, and the whole machinery of European diplomacy was brought to bear on the Turkish question. The protracted and irritating conferences of the European powers on the Eastern question, as it was then called, proved only too clearly the utter and insincere selfishness of their whole policy so far as any interest of Turkey was concerned, and demonstrated that though Russia might be as selfish as the rest, her policy was guided by an ability, reticence, and calm, assured strength that could not finally fail in its ultimate objects. Let us examine these discussions more closely.

Mehemet Ali, under the pretence of subduing some rebellious Pachas, overran Syria, and, backed by a victorious army, made his demands upon the Sultan. They were refused. He crossed the Syrian frontier, defeated the Turkish army, and turned his conquering columns towards Constantinople. Terrified at the prospect, the Sultan Mahmoud appealed to Russia for aid. It was promptly rendered, and on 20th February, 1833, the Russian fleet, sailing from Sebastopol, anchored at the mouth of the Bosphorus. At this crisis the French Ambassador arrived, and, uneasy at the prospective results of such aid, insisted that the Russian fleet should retire. It did so; and France applied directly to Ibrahim, the son of Mehemet, and then in command of the Egyptian army, for a suspension of arms. It was granted, and negotiations followed. They were unsuccessful, and the army resumed its hostile march. Again Russian aid was invoked. The fleet again entered the Bosphorus, and fifteen thousand Russian soldiers disembarked at Scutari, and took

position between the Bosphorus and the Egyptian army. Alarmed, however, almost as much at the probable consequences of Russian help as at the approach of his revolted subject, to avoid the one, the Sultan came to terms with the other, and granted in full the demands of Mehemet Ali. The Egyptian army commenced its retreat in one direction, and Turkey's dangerous ally withdrew in the other. But the services rendered so promptly by Russia's advance, and the still greater service by her prompt retreat, disposed the Sultan favorably to the diplomatic proposals of Russia; and the treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi was the consequence. By this treaty Russia bound herself to defend Turkey against all enemies, civil or foreign, and Turkey closed the Dardanelles to the armed vessels of all other foreign powers. The immense advantage to Russia of such a treaty need not be pointed out. Mehemet Ali was not satisfied. He demanded the hereditary government of his provinces; for he was ambitious of becoming an independent prince. War was again imminent. The great powers discouraged his ambition, but he persevered. The famous battle of Nezib terminated in the complete defeat of the Turkish army, the old Sultan died, and the Turkish Admiral, by an act of unparalleled treachery, delivered the whole Ottoman fleet into the hands of the rebel Pacha at Alexandria. The fate of the Turkish Empire seemed rapidly approaching its crisis. But on the 23d July, 1839, a French messenger having again induced the victorious Ibrahim to pause, the representatives of the five great powers, Russia, England, France, Austria, and Prussia, addressed the following note to the new Sultan Abdoul Medjid: "The five ambassadors undersigned, in conformity with their instructions received yesterday from their respective courts, congratulate themselves on having to announce to the ministers of the Sublime Porte, that the agreement between the five powers touching the Eastern question is certain. And they entreat the Sublime Porte, in waiting for the fruits of their friendly disposition, (*leurs dispositions bienveillantes*), not to decide absolutely on the said question in a definite manner without their concurrence, (*leur concours*)." Here, surely, one would think was a case in which, if the interests of Turkey were the object, the action of the mediators would have been prompt and unanimous. What was the fact? From July, 1838, when the note was sent, to July, 1841, when they agreed upon a joint treaty, these great powers consumed their time in perpetual disputes and diplomatic intrigue. They could not agree on a policy to be executed, nor upon a plan of execution. A conference called to give peace to the East, came near embroiling all Europe in war. France, who most eagerly commenced the pacification, was diplomatized out of all participation in the concluding treaty; and the Eastern

question was finally settled, more by the rough-and-ready responsibility of Sir Charles Napier, than by the subtle dexterity of the ambassadors at London.

For when, after the acceptance of their offer, the representatives of the Five Powers met, the Turkish Secretary of State exposed the weakness of the Empire; declared that they looked to Europe for their salvation, and thanking the Powers for their friendly intervention, submitted, as the first of his demands, that Syria should be restored to the Sultan; and very naturally. England and Austria sustained the demand. Russia and France opposed it. *They* demanded that Egypt and the Syrian Pacha-lis should be given to Mehemet, with an hereditary title. Prussia sided with England and France. These conferences were finally adjourned to London, and the Four Powers combined against France. Russia did not wish to weaken Turkey too far at that time; for Europe was not ready for the partition. England not only did not wish to weaken Turkey as against Russia, but she was vehemently opposed to the growth of Mehemet Ali's power in Egypt. France, on the contrary, was anxious to make Mehemet Ali an independent prince with Egypt and Syria, perhaps, because it reduced English influence in the Mediterranean and on the India overland route. In this, Russia at first agreed with her, but finding it easier to manage the English Cabinet than to oppose it, adopted English policy, and used it for her own purposes. Austria and Prussia acted on reasons it is not worth while to examine. Finding France steady in her purpose towards Mehemet Ali, the Czar, through Baron Brunow, induced England, by some concessions of the advantages obtained under the treaty of Unkjar Skelessi, to exclude France from any further deliberation, and with herself, Austria, and Prussia, to sign a treaty which would terminate the question. The treaty was signed. France was indignant, but submitted, and after some belligerent manifestations, acquiesced. Sir Charles Napier defeated the Egyptians on the shores of Syria, and upon the taking of St. Juan d'Acre, Mehemet Ali consented to the terms of the Sultan, by which he remained hereditary Pacha of Egypt; and thus another practical dismemberment of the Turkish Empire was effected. Thus, by 1842, in the name of the integrity of the Turkish Empire, Greece had been created an independent kingdom, Servia and Wallachia in a large degree enfranchised, and Egypt converted into an hereditary pachalik only nominally dependent on the Porte. And all this was done with the unanimous consent of the European Powers, acting in different directions, and in furtherance of divergent interests. Whatever of Turkey was left, was left only because the Great Powers could not agree how it was to be divided.



## Art. VIII.—COMMERCIAL AND AGRICULTURAL VIEW OF NOVA SCOTIA.

DURING the year and a half that I have administered the government of this province, I have endeavored to make myself acquainted with its industrial resources and maritime and agricultural capabilities.

With the Blue Book sent home in 1852, I transmitted the statistical returns for 1851, collected under an act of the Legislature. Without recapitulating what these include, I shall do myself the honor to call your lordship's attention to a few interesting facts and comparative statements, which will serve to illustrate the actual condition of this colony.

I am happy to be enabled to report that it has entirely recovered from the depression occasioned by the potato-rot, and by the derangements which recent changes in the commercial system of the empire at first occasioned. All the great interests of the province exhibit revived activity. Its staples—agricultural produce, fish, coal, gypsum, cordwood, lumber, and new vessels—command high prices. The population are fully employed; and the revenue, collected under a tariff the lowest on this continent, steadily increases, yielding not only all that is required to defray the expenses of the government, but a large surplus, for the protection of the fisheries, the encouragement of agriculture, the maintenance of schools, and for internal improvements of various kinds.

In Canada the ad valorem duty on imports is  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.; in New-Brunswick, it ranges from  $7\frac{1}{2}$  to 30 per cent.; but in Nova Scotia it is only  $6\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. on the same description of articles.

In 1849 the revenue was £54,179 11 4 sterling. In 1852, in sterling, £93,039 7 2. And the three quarters of 1852, the accounts for which have been closed, show that this increase will be maintained.

The following is a summary of the importations at the forty-three different ports in Nova Scotia, in the year 1852. We have abridged it from the original, which particularizes in detail the value of merchandise entered at each port:—

	Value.
Imported from Great Britain.....	£427,532 8 0
" " British Colonies .....	264,979 9 0
" " United States .....	347,843 19 0
" " Other Countries.....	153,819 14 0
Total.....	£1,194,175 10 0

A summary of exports in the same year shows the following result :—

	Value.
Exported to Great Britain.....	£62,675 19 0
“ “ British Colonies.....	565,219 10 4
“ “ United States.....	257,849 17 0
“ “ Other Countries.....	85,035 8 0
Total.....	£970,780 14 4

By a comparison of the totals, it would appear that there is a balance of £223,394 15 8 against the province; but when it is considered that the exports are estimated at the comparatively low prices which they bring here, it will be apparent that if the higher prices which they command abroad, including the freights outward in our own vessels, were given, they would prove that Nova Scotia is fulfilling all the conditions of a healthy and profitable exchange.

The value of new vessels, built for sale and exportation, ought also to be added to the exports. I regret that it is not in my power to furnish an accurate return of these. The Financial Secretary has been instructed to prepare one for the current year.

Before passing over the commercial aspects of Nova Scotia, your lordship will, perhaps, pardon me for calling your attention to the very extraordinary growth of her mercantile marine. This province being nearly surrounded by the sea, with the Bay of Fundy and Basin of Mines extending into the very midst of her, western and midland, and the Bras d'Or Lake into the bosom of her eastern counties, presents to the ocean, in proportion to territory, a greater extent of seacoast than any country with which I am familiar. While the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the northern ports of New-Brunswick are frozen up during four or five months of winter, the whole frontage of Nova Scotia upon the Atlantic, indented by the finest harbors in the world, is open to a profitable commerce throughout the year.

Availing themselves of these obvious advantages, the people of this province not only conduct a profitable fishery, and an active coasting and foreign trade, but enter largely into the carrying trade of other countries, competing successfully, on this extended field of rivalry, not only with the British ship-owners, but with the mercantile marine of the neighboring Republic.

In 1846, Nova Scotia owned 2,583 vessels; Canada but 604; New-Brunswick but 730; Newfoundland but 937; Prince Edward Island, 265. The tonnage of all these colonies, collectively, was, in that year, 252,832 tons, while that of Nova Scotia alone reached as high as 141,093 tons.

During the six years which have elapsed since 1846, the growth of this branch of industry has been most gratifying.

At the close of the last year, 1852, the number of vessels registered in this province, and actually employed in conducting its fishery, commerce, and carrying trade, had increased to 2,943, with a tonnage of 189,083, showing an increase in six years of 360 vessels, and 47,990 tons.

That Nova Scotia is destined, at no distant day, to be one of the largest ship-owning countries in the world, is apparent from the status already achieved. She owns now nearly one-third as much tonnage as France. She beats the Austrian Empire by 2,400 vessels, and by 69,000 tons, and owns 116,000 tons of shipping more than Belgium. She beats the Two Sicilies by 38,449 tons; Prussia, by 90,783. Holland, which once contested the supremacy of the seas with England, now owns but 72,640 tons of shipping more than this, one of her smallest colonies; and Sweden, with a population of three millions, only beats Nova Scotia in shipping by 36,927 tons.

But the comparison which Nova Scotia bears to the United States, taken separately or collectively, is quite as striking. By reference to the following table, it will appear, that of all the republican States and Territories, included in the confederation, the tonnage of but six exceeds that of Nova Scotia:—

	Tons.
Maine .....	593,806
Massachusetts .....	767,766
New-York .....	1,184,831
Pennsylvania .....	301,723
Maryland .....	206,247
Louisiana .....	261,171

Upon the three last, judging from the activity displayed in our ship-yards, we shall press closely, by the end of 1853, while nothing is more certain than that we shall outstrip them in a few years. Maine and Massachusetts, the great centres of New-England commerce, and of the fishery, still are far in advance of Nova Scotia, and with the Empire State of New-York, of course, she pretends to no comparison; but it should be borne in mind, that the loyalists who retired to this province at the Revolution, left all their property behind them; and that Maine, Massachusetts, and New-York, had a flourishing commerce, and owned a large amount of tonnage, before the British founders of this colony had a single sail upon the ocean.

The following table will show to your lordship how largely each of the other States and Territories are beaten by Nova Scotia. It is true that some of them are inland countries, but as most of those lie along the shores of the great lakes, or of navigable rivers, perhaps the comparison, which I am bound to institute, may abate a little of the arrogance with which the

citizens of the Republic are apt to challenge rivalry with all the world :—

Nova Scotia..... 189,083 tons.

	Tons.		Tons.
New-Hampshire.....	24,806	Alabama.....	28,533
Vermont.....	5,657	Mississippi.....	1,452
Rhode Island.....	41,049	Texas.....	7,120
Connecticut.....	125,088	Tennessee.....	4,634
New-Jersey.....	96,134	Kentucky.....	11,819
Delaware.....	9,598	Missouri.....	37,862
District of Columbia.....	26,197	Illinois.....	25,209
Virginia.....	72,538	Ohio.....	60,338
North Carolina.....	50,621	Michigan.....	46,348
South Carolina.....	46,735	Wisconsin.....	6,931
Georgia.....	25,785	Oregon.....	1,063
Florida.....	9,669	California.....	101,627

If we take the United States collectively, the comparison is still more curious. Assuming, from their latest statistical returns, that their population is 25,000,000, and their tonnage 4,138,439, this would give something over one ton of shipping to every six of the population. Now, taking the population of Nova Scotia at 300,000, and its tonnage at 189,083, this gives but a trifle less than two tons of shipping for every three of the population.

Who can set bounds to the maritime expansion of a people, who have done all this in a hundred years ?

The agricultural capabilities of this province are also very great, and I have endeavored to turn attention to them, by taking a personal interest in the pursuits of husbandry—by encouraging cattle-shows, and by the importation of the best breeds from England.

It is not necessary for me to dwell upon the nature of the soils or the aspects of the scenery of this province. These will be found described with sufficient accuracy in Sir John Harvey's report for 1849. But, as it has become so much the custom, on both sides of the Atlantic, to wonder at the extraordinary capabilities and advancement of the United States, and to institute comparisons with them unfavorable to the British North American Provinces, I may be pardoned for calling your lordship's attention to a few facts, which prove that, while the Nova Scotians, taken man for man, are outstripping their republican neighbors on the ocean, their country is far in advance of many of the States in the production of the necessaries of life, by the successful cultivation of the soil.

With the wheat-growing countries, which surround the great lakes, whether on the British or the American side of the line, Nova Scotia is not to be compared. She does not raise her own bread ; but while one barrel of her mackerel will purchase two barrels of flour, she can always afford to buy what she requires.



It is curious, however, to discover that even as a wheat-growing country, she beats five of the New-England States, and twelve of the more recently settled States and Territories.

## WHEAT CROP.

Wheat raised in Nova Scotia in 1851.....297,157 bushels.

State of Maine.....	206,259	Louisiana.....	417
New-Hampshire.....	185,658	Texas.....	41,198
Massachusetts.....	31,211	Arkansas.....	199,639
Rhode Island.....	49	California.....	17,328
Connecticut.....	41,726	Minnesota Territory.....	1,401
District of Columbia.....	17,370	Oregon.....	211,943
Florida.....	1,027	Utah.....	107,702
Alabama.....	294,040	New Mexico.....	196,617
Mississippi.....	137,990		

By reference to the returns, it will be seen that in the growth of rye Nova Scotia goes far ahead of sixteen of the neighboring States and Territories. In the production of Indian corn, (though the quality raised in this Province is excellent,) most of the United States surpass Nova Scotia; but yet, in the growth of oats she beats thirteen, in buckwheat twenty-three, and in barley every State and Territory in the Union except Ohio and New-York. In the growth of hay and in the products of the dairy it may be seen that only the older, larger, and more populous of the United States are in advance of the Province, while in the yield of potatoes she leaves twenty-three of the States far behind her. [Here follow detailed statistics of the foregoing.]

From what has been stated in a previous part of this report, your Grace will readily comprehend the peculiar importance which the people of Nova Scotia attach to the protection of the rights of the fishery, secured to British subjects by the Convention of 1818. They know that a successful fishery has ever formed a secure basis for maritime superiority. They know that France could not man her navy now but for the nursery for seamen which she maintains, by bounties, on the banks and coasts of Newfoundland. They know also that in the only two of the New-England States which exceed them in tonnage, the fishery (directly fostered by bounties paid out of the general treasury of the Union) has been the nursing mother of the mercantile marine.

The fishermen of Nova Scotia ask no bounties from the Imperial Legislature. They have ceased to ask them even from their own. But what they do require is protection from both in the enjoyment of those rights secured to them by treaties, and out of the lawful exercise of which they see slowly evolving maritime capabilities and resources which no wise government, in their opinion, should disregard.

To enable your Grace to see the magnitude of this question from the colonial point of view, I may be pardoned for dwelling upon it for a few moments.

From the mouth of the river St. Croix, which is the boundary between the United States and the British Provinces, to Cape Sable, on the opposite shore of Nova Scotia, following the coast line of the Bay of Fundy and Basin of Mines, there are 400 miles of sea-coast. Tracing the coast lines of Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, there are 800 miles more. The northern shores of New-Brunswick and those of Prince Edward Island may be estimated at 500. The coast of Canada, from below where the St. Lawrence is six miles wide to the New-Brunswick boundary, stretch over 800 miles. Following the north shore of the St. Lawrence to the mouth of Hudson's Bay, including the coast of Labrador, there are, perhaps, 1,500 miles more. A crow, flying around the Island of Newfoundland, must travel 1,000 miles. British North America has thus (including that portion between Cape St. John and Cape Ray, on which the French have secured the right to fish) 5,000 miles of sea-coast. The whole Atlantic shore of the United States includes but 1,800. The shore line of the Gulf of Mexico gives them but 1,100 more, or 2,900 in all; of which by far the largest proportion bounds the slave States, whose laboring population cannot be trusted by their masters on the sea. If to those 5,000 miles of sea-coast we add the indentations of bays and harbors—and all North America abounds with them—we shall have at least 5,000 additional miles. Along this whole line of coast, and in these numerous bays and harbors, to say nothing of the Great Banks of Newfoundland, there is the finest fishery in the world. Cod, haddock, halibut, mackerel, herring, alewives and salmon abound, with numerous other fish which have yet no marketable value.

These fisheries naturally (to say nothing of treaties) belong to her Majesty's subjects in North America, who own the adjacent coasts and islands, which flank, enlap, and encompass them on every side. They have the same rights over these exhaustless treasures which the citizens of the United States have long exercised over the comparatively valueless fishery along the southern seaboard, on which the men of the North (even if the doctrines laid down by American publicists were less explicit) would not find it profitable to encroach.

Your Grace is aware that Nova Scotia, so far back as 1819, perceived the importance of maintaining these rights of fishery. In almost every year since that period a small force has been fitted out, and the obvious stipulations of the convention of 1818 have been asserted by the cruisers of this Province, even when they could not be very efficiently enforced. In 1851 efforts were made to interest the other Provinces in this service, and since

that year Her Majesty's government has bestowed upon it a degree of solicitude commensurate with its vast importance.

With a view to combine the provincial and imperial operations as much as possible, I place the vessels fitted out by this government in 1852, under instructions approved by Vice-Admiral Sir George F. Seymour, and throughout the season they acted as auxiliaries to Her Majesty's ships employed in the same service. During the past summer the vessels hired by the provincial government have been placed at the Vice-Admiral's entire disposal, and have been manned by drafts from the flag ship and commanded by naval officers.

The zeal, energy, and discretion evinced by his Excellency Sir George F. Seymour, in the protection of this great fishery, while they have commanded the entire confidence of the Provincial government, and drawn forth unanimous expressions of approbation and respect from each branch of the Legislature, have left the commanders of the United States men-of-war, who have in both seasons been sent into the northern waters, nothing of which they could, with any shadow of justice, complain. The effects of increased vigilance are clearly discernible in the reduced catch of our neighbors, and in the enhanced value of our own. For all kinds of fish there is a brisk demand, and mackerel have sold on our wharves, during this summer, as high as \$13 per barrel.

The political condition of Nova Scotia, as your lordship is well aware, is quite as much advanced as its industrial. The province enjoys, in common with Canada and New-Brunswick, the full development of representative institutions. Each branch of the Legislature is guided by British precedents. In the courts the law and practice of England universally prevail. The press is free, and even its licentiousness is unrestrained by any check unfamiliar to the inhabitants of the mother country. The public servants hold their offices by tenures sanctioned by imperial practice, and the modes of administration, while they secure to the Queen's representative the aid of a Parliamentary majority, and of able men to preside over the public departments, leave him free to discharge the duties which he owes to her Majesty, by the constitutional exercise and preservation of all the prerogatives of the crown. I have the honor to be, &c.

(Signed)

J. GASPARD LE MARCHANT.

Right Honorable His Grace the Duke of Newcastle.

## ART. IX.—MINES AND MINERALS AND MANUFACTURING IN EAST TENNESSEE.

WE take the following from the *Knoxville Register* of the 12th, from which it will be readily perceived that the present course of the Legislature of the State of Tennessee, in granting aid to railroads, will tend to the early development of these latent resources, and make that State one of the wealthiest and most prosperous of the Union.

Much has been said of the copper mines of Polk county, and from what we hear as daily occurring in that region, we are constrained to believe that their value has not been as yet half developed. But recently, we are told, the miners have reached the yellow sulphuret of copper, which we understand is an infallible indication of the inexhaustible extent of the mines, and also their incomparable richness. The fever which has hitherto prevailed in that quarter of East Tennessee seems not yet to have attained its highest pitch, as new discoveries are being made, new mines opened, and large transactions transpiring. But last week, we are informed, there were sales of two or three quarter sections of land, at about \$1,250,000.

About five thousand tons of ore are now being taken from the mines monthly, and this of such richness as to be worth net one hundred dollars per ton, thus making the products of the mines even now half a million of dollars per month. What it will be when the shafts that are being sunk all penetrate the rich sulphuret, no one can conjecture, and what discoveries are yet to be made in the intervening spaces between the Polk county mines and those recently discovered in Carroll county, Virginia, "no man can know"—that the two developments are but the outcropping of the same continuous vein, which extends along our eastern border, we think there cannot be the shadow of a doubt, as the Virginia and Polk county veins have the same direction, northeast and southwest, have the same dip, the same surface indications, and are in the same chain of mountains. Besides this, the formation of the intervening country indicates as certainly the presence of copper beneath the surface, as do the masses of once molten matter which are to be seen where the copper has been found.

But these copper developments are not the one-tenth part of the indications of the unprecedented value which is some day, and that now not very far distant, to be attached to mineral lands in East Tennessee. To say nothing of our zinc, lead, marble, &c., &c., and the immense amount of capital which we have no doubt will be some day employed in bringing these treasures out of the earth, we can point to our *mountains of iron*



and coal as being of more value, ultimately, than all the copper mines of the world, no matter how productive they may be.

It is strange, indeed, that all the capital which is now being invested in mineral lands in East Tennessee, should be controlled by this copper mania. There are immense fields of coal, unsurpassed in their extent, or in the quality of the coal, by any that has ever been discovered, in immediate proximity to the best iron ore in the world, and that, too, so abundant that we verily believe, with the fuel so near, and other facilities which may be had, together with the modern improvements in the art of making iron, the pig iron may be made at a cost of little more than five dollars per ton. And yet thousands of acres of land in East Tennessee, where this coal and iron so much abound, might now be purchased for less than fifty cents per acre; and that, too, in view of the fact, that there are so soon to be radiating from Knoxville railways to the North, South, East, and West, over which the iron may be transported with profit to any market in the United States.

To Charleston, for instance, the time will soon be when it may be transported for eight dollars per ton, thence to New-York for two and a half dollars; to Cincinnati and Louisville for from four to five dollars, making the actual cost of the iron in New-York less than \$20 per ton, in Charleston less than \$15, and in Cincinnati less than \$10! To our distant readers, who are familiar with prices for pig iron, ranging from \$20 to \$50, these suggestions may seem to be visionary, but they will not so think when we tell them that iron is now made in East Tennessee after the fashion in which "our fathers" made it, and that, too, with charcoal, at \$10 per ton, and that the iron men of East Tennessee have always realized good profits in the Ohio River markets, though their only access to them heretofore has been by a transportation of near three thousand miles, (*via* the Tennessee and Ohio Rivers.) Here then is the place to "put money"—in the coal and iron lands; not that there are not large profits to be realized from a more complete development of our marble quarries, zinc and lead mines; but iron has ever been, and must continue to be, an article absolutely indispensable, in some form or other, to every family in this and every other land.

#### Art. X.—STEAMBOAT DISASTERS ON WESTERN WATERS IN 1853.

THE following list was compiled by Edwin A. Goff, of Missouri, and is full of instructive lessons to the mercantile interests of the country:—

Jan. 7th.—Steamer John Simonds collapsed a flue while rounding out

from the Louisville wharf-boat, was subsequently repaired at a cost of about \$3,000. No one injured.

*Jan. 10th.*—Steamer T. P. Leathers took fire in the hold, near Natchez, Lower Mississippi, and was badly burned. Captain Carroll, of the James Robb, saved her from destruction. She was towed to New-Orleans by the Robb, and Captain Carroll claimed and obtained salvage on the cargo to the amount of \$18,000.

*Jan. 19th.*—Steamers New Lucy, New England and Brunette were burned at the landing and totally destroyed, except portions of their hulls. New England was valued at \$6,500, New Lucy at \$37,000, and the Brunette at \$30,000. The two latter boats were entirely new, the former was an old boat.

*Jan. 6th.*—Steamer Joe Wilson blew up and burnt to the water's edge, at Columbus, Arkansas. Total loss—valued at \$18,000.

*Jan. 10th.*—The steamer G. W. Kendall run on the rocks at Louisville, where she remained some two or three months, and was damaged to the amount of \$3,000.

*Jan. 18th.*—Steamer Winfield Scott was blown on the rocks in front of Louisville, and was badly damaged thereby. She was subsequently gotten off and repaired at an expense of \$2,000 to \$3,000.

*Jan. 19th.*—Steamer Allen Grover was wrecked in the Alabama river, between Tuscaloosa and Mobile. Boat and cargo total loss. Value of either unknown.

*Jan. 3d.*—Steamer Alabama was run aground at Montgomery, Alabama river, where she remained some two or three months; was launched at a cost of \$3,000.

*Jan. 6th.*—Polar Star encountered a snag below President's Island, Lower Mississippi, slightly damaged.

*Jan. 20th.*—The Michigan and Australia came in collision at Shousetown, on the Ohio; the engine of the latter badly damaged.

*Jan. 25th.*—The Swallow and Edward Howard came in collision twenty-five miles above New-Orleans, by which the former was sunk; loss not ascertained.

*Jan. 6th.*—The Sligo No. 2, an old and worthless boat, was destroyed by fire at Smithland; loss but small.

*Jan. 26th.*—The U. S. Aid ran against Covington Bridge, on the Wabash, by which her chimneys, pilot house, and a portion of her cabin were demolished, and the carpenter, John A. Carr, killed.

*Jan. 23d.*—The Sultana encountered a tremendous gale of wind at Mills' Point, Lower Mississippi, had her chimneys blown down; her cabin and boiler deck were considerably injured.

*Jan. 15th.*—The Mary Bess was sunk in the Alabama river, and a valuable cargo of cotton destroyed, together with the boat; loss \$18,000 to \$20,000.

*Jan. 12th.*—The Excel left this city for one of the Southern rivers, and when forty-five or fifty miles below here lost her wheel, returned and gave up the trip.

*Jan. 14th.*—John McFadin broke a shaft on her way from the Ohio river, near Paducah.

*Jan. 13th.*—E. Howard was slightly injured by a snag, at Island 21, Lower Mississippi.

*Jan. 13th.*—R. H. Lee had her guard badly torn coming around from the Wabash river.

*Jan. 2nd.*—Steamer Fusileer exploded both boilers in the Mississippi river, near Ship Island, killing eight persons; among them one of the engineers and the mate. The captain was also badly injured.

*Feb. 12th.*—The Memphis was sunk below Madison, Indiana, with a large

cargo of merchandise on board; loss \$30,000. The boat was afterwards raised, and is now running.

*Feb. 6th.*—Steamers Jefferson and Col. Bayard came in collision on the Monongahela river, seven miles above Pittsburgh. Both boats were seriously damaged by the accident, and were compelled to lie up for repairs. On board the Jefferson two lives were lost.

*Feb. 10th.*—Steamer Memphis sunk at Madison, Ohio river; valued at \$12,000.

*Feb. 9th.*—The Grand Tower run into a wharf-boat lying at Warsaw, Ohio river, and sunk it with a large amount of merchandise on board. Loss not ascertained.

*Feb. 14th.*—Sam Cloon was sunk in Spanish Moss Bend, Lower Mississippi, by coming into collision with the Harry Hill. The Cloon was subsequently raised at a cost of \$5,000.

*Feb. 25th.*—Steamer Pittsburgh and Falls City came into collision at Petticoat Island, Ohio river. Both boats badly damaged. The former to the amount of \$3,000 and the latter \$5,000.

*Feb. 15th.*—Steamer John Swasey was totally destroyed by fire at New-Orleans, with 1,600 bales of cotton on board. Three of the crew perished in the flames; loss of boat and cargo estimated at \$70,000.

*Feb. 6th.*—The G. W. Kendall sunk a barge at St. Joseph, Lower Mississippi, by which 1,600 barrels molasses were lost.

*Feb. 8th.*—The Bride got aground in Wabash river, and while sparring the boat off three men were killed by the breaking of the capstan.

*Feb. 5th.*—The Avalanche was burnt at Peoria—loss \$7,000.

*Feb. 16th.*—A collision took place in the Missouri river, between the Highland Mary and El Paso; damages light.

*Feb. 12th.*—A collision occurred in the Illinois river, near Hardin, between the R. H. Lee and Movastar; little or no damage done.

The steamers Sun and Echo were both sunk in Red river, in February, exact date not recollected; loss not known.

*Mar. 8th.*—Steamer Shenandoah, on her way down from Keokuk, struck a snag, which broke fifty of her hull timbers; was docked at this city, at an expense of \$2,000.

*Mar. 9th.*—The Highland Mary No. 2 sunk in Upper Mississippi, two miles above Hamburg. Loss \$4,000.

*Mar. 3d.*—The Emma Watts was sunk in the Wabash river, by coming in collision with the steamer Hermann. She was subsequently raised at an expense of \$3,000.

*Mar. 4th.*—Steamer Retrieve sunk in the river between Columbus, Georgia, and Apalachicola. Total loss, value \$15,000.

*Mar. 6th.*—Steamer Thomas Swan was snagged in the Ohio river, near Wheeling; damage \$3,000.

*Mar. 12th.*—Steamer Kate Swinney, in coming down the Missouri river, broke out her cylinder head; lost a trip by the accident; damage \$1,000.

*Mar. 17th.*—The steamer Saxon, on her way up to Alton, run into and sunk a flat-boat laden with staves, hoop-poles and lumber. Flat and cargo a total loss; value \$2,500.

*Mar. 16th.*—Steamer Bee exploded her boilers at West Franklin, Ohio river. Two lives were lost by the accident and several persons injured.

*Mar. 12th.*—The steamer Milton was totally destroyed by fire below Louisville; boat total loss; value \$6,000.

*Mar. 17th.*—Steamer Robert Campbell struck a snag at St. Aubert, was compelled to go on the docks; loss \$1,500.

*Mar. 25th.*—Steamer California sunk in Shirt-tail Bend, Lower Mississippi; total loss, value \$10,000.

*Mar. 11th.*—Steamers Martha Jewett and Louisa came into collision at

Island 66, Lower Mississippi, by which the latter boat had her wheel-house stove in and wheel badly broken; damage about \$1,000.

*Mar. 12th.*—Two coal boats were sunk loaded with coal, in the Ohio river, at Scuffletown; boats and cargo lost, value \$3,500.

*Mar. 10th.*—Steamer Asia, a Galena packet, sunk at Keithsburg, in six feet water, was subsequently raised and docked at an expense of \$2,000.

*Mar. 1st.*—The Robt. Campbell struck a log, at St. Aubert, Missouri river, breaking forty to sixty of her timbers, and damaging valuable cargo; loss \$4,000.

*Mar. 3d.*—The Liah Tuna and L. M. Kennett came in collision at Hat Island; former damaged slightly.

*Mar. 14th.*—The Emma Watts sunk in the Wabash (loss not known) by a collision with the Hermann, but subsequently raised.

*April 2nd.*—Steamer Charleston sunk at Rising Sun, Ohio river. Total loss \$35,000.

*April 20th.*—Steamer Georgia, on her way down from Council Bluffs, Missouri river, was caught in a storm of wind, which blew down her chimneys and damaged the boat to the amount of \$1,200.

*April 18th.*—Steamer Julia Dean sunk in Wabash river above the town of York. Total loss—value of boat \$11,000, cargo worth \$2,500.

*April 25th.*—Steamer Kansas sunk in the Missouri river, at Linden Landing. Boat valued at \$7,000, value of cargo unknown.

*April 28th.*—The Amazonia was badly damaged in the Illinois river by running into the bank. Loss both chimneys overboard. Damage \$1,000.

*April 8th or 9th.*—The steamer Olivia sunk in the Upper Ohio, above Portsmouth, with a cargo of salt, amounting to about 2,000 barrels. Boat and cargo lost, valued at about \$6,000 to \$7,000.

*April 12th.*—The Eastport caught fire below Memphis, and two hundred bales cotton were destroyed thereby.

*April 20th.*—The Julia Ann, a small craft, sunk near York, Wabash river; loss \$3,000 to \$4,000; covered by insurance.

*April 21st.*—The mud receiver of the Henry Chouteau burst at Grand Gulf; one man killed and two slightly scalded.

*May 6th.*—Steamer Hiram Powers was burnt in Wabash river. Boat total loss; value \$20,000.

*May 2nd.*—Steamer Bride was snagged and sunk in Wabash river. Total loss—valued at \$15,000.

*May 4th.*—Julia Dean snagged and sunk in White river. Value \$8,000. Was afterwards raised and put in running order.

*May 15th.*—Steamer Badger State struck a snag and sunk in the Des Moines river. Was raised and docked at a cost of \$2,000.

*May 16th.*—The Caleb Cope sunk a barge in the Illinois river, loaded with merchandise. The barge and part of cargo lost; value \$2,700.

*May 20th.*—Steamers Atlantic and Paul Anderson came in collision at Cairo, by which accident the latter boat sustained damage to her stern in the amount of \$500 or \$600.

*May 2nd.*—The Leslie No. 2 was destroyed by fire at Algiers, opposite New-Orleans. Loss very small.

*May . . .*—Steamer Preston, with a large cargo of merchandise, sunk in Upper Red river, below White Oak shoals. Loss heavy; exact amount not ascertained; supposed about \$50,000 or \$60,000.

*May 1st.*—Virginia and Orion came in collision on the Ohio river; latter damaged \$1,500.

*May 8th.*—The Jim Turner was sunk below the Raft in Red river; boat of very little value.

*May 3d.*—Two men were killed on board the Keokuk packet Jeannie Deans, by the bursting of a small swivel, as that boat was coming into port.



*May 15th.*—Buckeye State burst her connection pipe at Merriman, below Pittsburgh; one man killed.

*May 17th.*—The Gen. Scott was sunk near Memphis; most of her freight saved; boat not very valuable.

*June 11th.*—The Falls City, in a gale at Blennerhassett's Island, received injuries to the extent of \$5,000.

*June 1st.*—The canal boat Western World, sunk at Naples, Illinois river, while in tow of the steamer Fayaway. Part of cargo only lost, valued at \$1,100.

*June 10th.*—The steamer Kate Swinney, on her way up the Missouri river, took fire in the hold, but little damage done—not more than \$500 worth.

*June 20th.*—The steamer James Millingar was burnt up at the Cincinnati wharf; worth \$10,000.

The steamer Memphis, No. 1, was also burnt at the same time and place with the James Millingar—worth \$6,000.

*June 23d.*—Steamer Michigan encountered a severe storm of wind on her way down from Galena, by which her chimneys were blown overboard, and the boat otherwise damaged. Loss by the accident, \$2,000.

*June 18th.*—Larboard steam connection pipe of the New Lucy burst as she was leaving this port; three persons scalded; no lives lost.

*June 20th.*—Emperor sunk at McCullum's Riffle, on the Ohio; boat of but little value, and cargo small.

*June 2nd.*—Steamer Summit sprung aleak at Cincinnati, and damaged her cargo to the amount of \$12,000.

The James Millingar and Memphis No. 1 were destroyed by fire at Cincinnati, June 14. Loss, \$40,000.

The North America and Clara were consumed by fire at Fulton, Cincinnati, September 8th. Both old boats; loss about \$15,000.

The West Newton sunk near Lake Pepin, Upper Mississippi, on the 13th October. Total loss about \$5,000.

The tow boat Brooklyn was sunk near Augusta, Ohio river, by collision with the Sciota. Boat of but little value.

*July 26th.*—The steamers Dr. Franklin No. 2, Bluff City, and Highland Mary No. 1, were totally destroyed by fire at St. Louis wharf. The Dr. Franklin was valued at \$8,000, Bluff City \$40,000, and Highland Mary \$5,500.

*July 13th.*—The steamer Manchester was totally destroyed by fire at the Pittsburgh wharf. Valued at \$20,000.

*Aug. 24th.*—The Timour, No. 2, got aground at Smith's Bar, on the Missouri, where she lay for three months, but was removed at a cost of \$3,000 to \$4,000.

*Aug. 10th.*—The Lady Franklin and Jane Franklin came in collision, a few miles above Madison, Indiana; the latter seriously damaged.

*Aug. 13th.*—A collision took place at Gunpowder Bar, on the Ohio, between the Express and Envoy; former considerably damaged.

*Aug. 15th.*—The Dresden and Georgia came in contact on the Mississippi, near Cairo; latter slightly injured.

*Sept. 10th.*—The Pawnee was sunk a short distance above Cairo, in twelve feet water. Boat total loss; insured for \$16,000; cargo badly damaged. Total loss estimated at \$35,000 to \$40,000.

*Sept. 26th.*—The Patrick Henry struck a snag, opposite Wittenburgh, 100 miles below this city. Boat slightly damaged.

*Sept. 2d.*—Steamer Daniel Hillman sunk on Lower Rapids—was afterwards raised at an expense of \$2,000.

*Sept. 10th.*—Col. Dickinson sunk at Island 18, Lower Mississippi. Total loss—valued at \$18,000.

*Sept. 20th.*—Steamer Farmer sunk at the same place. Total loss—valued at \$11,000.

*Sept. 30th.*—The Grand Tower and Saranak No. 2, came into collision below Cairo, by which the latter was damaged to the amount of \$1,000.

*Sept. 24th.*—The steamer General Pike sunk at Bainbridge, below St. Louis. Total loss. Boat valued at \$20,000.

*Sept. 15th.*—The steamer Daniel Boone sunk at College Point, Lower Mississippi, by coming in collision with the Southern Belle. Value of the boat unknown.

*Sept. 12th.*—The U. S. Mail was sunk at the Louisville wharf, by being run into by the Ben Coursin. She was raised, and is now running.

*Oct. 12th.*—The steamer Georgetown sunk at Grand Tower, Lower Mississippi. Total loss. Value unknown.

*Oct. 21st.*—The steamers Montank, Lunette, and Robert Campbell, were totally destroyed by fire at the St. Louis wharf. Aggregate value, \$40,000.

*Oct. 11th.*—The steamer Flag sunk in the Ohio river, at Flint Island, and was subsequently raised. Damage, \$3,000.

*Oct. 20th.*—The barge John Argeant, in tow of the Iron-ton, was sunk between here and Cairo. Barge a total loss, worth \$3,000; cargo damaged, valued at about \$16,000.

*Oct. 2nd.*—The Wenona struck a snag below Glasgow, on the Missouri, by which the boat and cargo were slightly damaged.

*Oct. 6th.*—The Wisconsin struck a rock in the Lower Rapids of the Mississippi, by which she sustained inconsiderable injuries.

*Oct. 9th.*—The R. H. Lee sunk in Campbell Chain, Upper Rapids, by striking a rock, in eight feet water; boat subsequently raised and repaired; cargo of grain and other produce badly damaged.

*Oct. 14th.*—James Robb, bound for Alton, struck a log or other obstruction, breaking eighty or ninety of her hull timbers. Brought back and docked.

*Oct. 19th.*—The Shipper was sunk at Harpeth Shoals, Cumberland river, in five feet water; subsequently raised.

*Oct. 21st.*—The C. Hayes and Southern Belle came in collision a short distance above New-Orleans; former damaged to the extent of \$1,000.

*Nov. 10th.*—The steamer Volant was totally destroyed by fire on the Yazoo river. Loss, \$10,000.

The Golden Era sunk in the Upper Mississippi, at Clarksville. Has since been raised and put in running order, at an expense of about \$3,000.

*Nov. . .*—J. M. Clendenin sunk in the Missouri river. Total loss; valued at \$16,000.

*Nov. 10th.*—Steamer Delaware snagged at Hat Island; damaged badly; expense of repairing \$4,000.

*Nov. 5th.*—Amazonia snagged at Hat Island; expense of repairs \$1,500.

*Nov. 10th.*—The Die Vernon was badly damaged by a snag while coming up from New-Orleans.

*Nov. 10th.*—A barge loaded with grain was sunk in the Illinois river, while in tow of the Gossamer; loss \$2,000.

*Nov. 4th.*—The Lady Pike and Walk-in-the-Water came in contact at Ste. Genevieve; latter slightly injured.

*Nov. 6th.*—The Belle Gould and the Ne Plus Ultra came in collision between this city and Alton; former damaged to a slight extent.

*Nov. 20th.*—Jeannie Deans snagged at Island 26, Lower Mississippi; damaged to the extent of \$1,000.

*Dec. 3d.*—Steamer Herald run into by the Cincinnati, at Bickney's Landing; former damaged slightly, latter little or none at all.

*Dec. 10th.*—The Badger State and Time-and-Tide came in collision at French Bar, Illinois river, by which the wheel of the former was broken.

*Dec. 13th.*—The Admiral was snagged at Henderson Island, on the Ohio, and compelled to unload cargo, which was slightly damaged.

*Dec. 21st.*—Altona snagged in Sawyer's Bend; came to this city, and repaired at a cost of \$800 to \$1,000.

*Dec. 21st.*—Zachary Taylor blew up on the Ohio, killing six of the crew, and wounding several others.

*Dec. 27th.*—Steamer Geo. Campbell, bound from Louisville to San Juan, sunk at Island 40, Lower Mississippi. Will be a total loss; value \$10,000.

*Dec. 18th.*—The Robert J. Ward and Belle Key came into collision at Donaldsonville, Lower Mississippi. The former was damaged to the amount of about \$3,000.

The Buckeye sunk in the Lower Mississippi at Three Sisters, some time in December; particulars not ascertained.

*Dec. 31st.*—The last day of the year 1853, the Altona struck a snag and sunk between this city and Alton. It is more than probable that she will be lost; cost when new \$32,000; insured for \$20,000; worth \$20,000.

*Dec. 6th.*—Steamer Timour, No. 2, sunk in the Missouri river, was raised and is now running.

*Dec. 6th.*—The St. Ange struck a snag in the Missouri river and broke fifty hull timbers; repaired at a cost of \$2,000.

*Dec. 7th.*—Steamer Badger State broke a crank while coming down from Galena, and when a short distance above the city.

*Dec. 8th.*—Steamer Australia snagged and sunk at Hat Island, Lower Mississippi; boat total loss, valued at \$18,000.

*Dec. 11th.*—Steamer Cincinnati sunk at Willard's Landing; total loss; valued at \$30,000; worth about \$15,000.

*Dec. 16th.*—Steamer Wyoming burnt in Illinois river; total loss; worth \$2,000.

*Dec. 17th.*—Steamers Excel and St. Francis sunk in the Illinois river, the former at Apple Creek, and the latter at or near Lasalle. The Excel has since been raised.

Steamer Cornelia, sunk between this city and Alton on the 18th December, will in all probability be a total loss; valued at \$22,500; worth about \$15,000.

The Uncle Sam got aground during the month of December, at President's Island, Lower Mississippi; will be lost or badly damaged.

## Art. XL.—CULTURE AND COMMERCE OF COTTON IN INDIA.

### No. I.\*

MATERIALS for food and for clothing, both equally necessary for man in a civilized state of society, are yielded in probably equal proportions by the animal and vegetable kingdoms. The flesh of various animals, wool and silk of different kinds being contributed by the former, as the cereal grains, pulses, and roots, with flax, hemp, and cotton, are yielded by the latter, and form the food and clothing of millions of the human race. Though the first coverings of men may have been formed of skins, the wool of sheep and the hair of goats were early employed for such purposes in Northern Asia and Southern Europe, as silk no doubt was in China. Hemp was cultivated in the north of Europe, and flax in Egypt, while Cotton has, from the earliest periods, been considered to be characteristic of India. Though the uncertain nature of Hindoo chronology prevents us from guessing at the period when it was first employed, there is little

\* By Dr. J. F. Royle, of England.

doubt that it must have been so from the earliest ages of Hindoo civilization : for being indigenous in their country, it could not fail to be noticed by its inhabitants ; first, from the brilliancy of its golden inflorescence ; and secondly, from the dazzling whiteness of its bursting fruit. This being filled with seeds, enveloped in a material so soft, so white, and so fibre-like as cotton, could hardly fail to be gathered even by the most incurious. On gathering, one would almost involuntarily twist it into a thread, and thus appear to re-discover the patriarchal art of spinning. Other plants have their useful flax-like fibres concealed under bark, or in other vegetable matter : but cotton, on the bursting of the pod, like wool at the birth of the lamb, is at once revealed to view. As this must be separated from its skin, so the other requires only to be pulled off its seed, to be ready for being spun into thread. The father of History, in his account of India, says : "The wild trees in that country bear fleeces as their fruit, surpassing those of sheep in beauty and excellence ; and the Indians use cloth made from these trees."

Having a thread, the art of weaving would be readily discovered, as that of plating rushes, slender stems and strips of leaves, seems to have been universally practised. But much ingenuity must have been expended before even the most common loom was invented. Weaving was well known to all the civilized nations of antiquity : as, to the Egyptians, the Assyrians, the Chinese, and Hindoos. The culture of flax, and the processes of weaving, are represented in the ancient monuments of Egypt ; and Joseph was by Pharaoh arrayed in fine linen. The Israelites, on their departure from that country, were acquainted not only with weaving, but with dyeing. The curtains of the Tabernacle were blue, purple, and scarlet. The former art is sometimes stated to have been discovered in Assyria, and its results we see represented in the monuments disinterred by the energy of a Layard, and interpreted by the genius of a Rawlinson. They are noticed in the not less creditable relics of the ancient Hindoos, that is, their Vedas and the Institutes of Menu.

But the art of weaving was not confined to the Old World, for Columbus found cotton abundant on his first arrival in the West Indies ; and the early Spanish historians describe it as forming the chief clothing of the Mexicans ; and cotton fabrics of different kinds formed a part of the presents sent by Cortez to Charles V. Magellan saw it among the Brazilians ; and it has of late years been discovered in the ancient Peruvian tombs, along with cloth of a black and white check, not unlike some modern patterns. We may, therefore, readily concede, what botanists maintain, that the Indian and American cotton plants are perfectly distinct as species. Though a common kind was grown at an earlier period, the United States are described as receiving



their fine cotton seeds from one of the West India Islands about the year 1786. The culture was soon carried from the *sea islands* of the coast of Carolina into the interior and *uplands* of Georgia, and shortly afterwards from the Atlantic States to those which lie along the Gulf of Mexico, and latterly into Texas.

Celebrated as India has been, from all antiquity, for the production of cotton, and for the excellence of her calico, as well as for the marvellous beauty of her muslin manufacture, it seems unaccountable to see Indian cotton occupying the lowest place in price currents, and described as inferior in quality, dirty in condition, and deficient in supply. We hear, moreover, of her hitherto matchless fabrics, and the much-desired objects of commerce for probably 3,000 years, beaten out of even her home market by the comparatively recent but now gigantic cotton manufactures of England. The latter effect has no doubt been produced by the joint influence of the persevering ingenuity of her mechanics, and the untiring power of steam, aided by an abundant supply of the raw material from a variety of sources. The alleged failure of India to produce increasing quantities of superior cotton has been ascribed to a variety of causes—to the depressing effects of fiscal regulations, and to the want of easy means of transit; sometimes to the baneful influence of middlemen, and the extortionate demands of money-lenders; seldom to poverty of soil or to unsuitableness of climate, or to the unfitness of Indian cotton for English machinery. Some who complain seem to forget the possibility of change, even in an age of innovations, for they adduce grievances which have years before been abolished, and state as general facts what, on examination, prove to be only local incidents. Few inquire whether the native cultivator participates in the anxiety which is displayed for his improvement or is likely to be rewarded for any extra labor he may bestow on a new culture, or the merchant for the risk he incurs in exporting to an ever-varying market. In such a case, the difficulty of ascertaining the truth is as great as it is important that it should be ascertained, in order that impediments should be removed, and exertion applied to improve the culture of a plant and to the careful picking of its produce, as this could hardly fail to be of benefit to the natives of the country, and to the extension of their commerce.

Next to the grain of the cereal grasses, Cotton is probably the natural product upon which the comfort and prosperity of several nations depend more than upon any other. It may be sufficient to observe, that if it is beneficial for America to produce, and for England to purchase, the raw material for her gigantic manufacture, it is equally so for India to consume what she produces within her natural limits, with the aid and for the use of her hundred millions of cotton-clad inhabitants. To those who have

not paid attention to the subject, it may appear that we exaggerate its importance, when we connect the welfare of nations with what may to them appear so very trivial a matter as the hair, or rather wool-like covering, of a seed; but let us for an instant, without on the present occasion mentioning all the countries where cotton is produced, take a glance at the great producers and consumers of this not less elegant than useful product of the vegetable kingdom.

### § 1. RISE OF THE COTTON MANUFACTURE IN GREAT BRITAIN.

To England, a regular supply of cotton, and its price, is a subject of paramount importance, even though the manufacture here is of comparatively recent origin; for any interruption in the supply of the raw material is not a question of mere inconvenience, or of the profitable employment of capital, but one of vital statistics; for it deprives hundreds of thousands of her industrious population not only of regular employment, but of their daily bread. In order fully to appreciate the importance of this manufacture, we may briefly notice its origin and rapid extension, as well as connect this with its effects on India.

The cotton manufacture was no doubt established in India long before we find it noticed in any reliable history. The natives of that country early attained excellence in the arts of spinning and weaving, employing only their fingers and the spinning-wheel for the former; but they seem to have exhausted their ingenuity when they invented the hand-loom for weaving, as they have for ages remained in a stationary condition. From India the culture of the plant and the manufacture of cotton spread into the south of Persia and into Egypt. By the Mahomedans both were carried wherever their arms extended their conquests. Mr. Baines, whom we have chiefly consulted for the historical facts, observes it as "extraordinary, that a branch of industry so apt to propagate itself, should have lingered 1,300 years on the coast of the Mediterranean, before it crossed that sea into Greece or Italy."\* Cotton seems to have been first cultivated in Spain by the Mahomedans as early as the 10th century, and the manufacture to have been established in Italy in the beginning of the 14th century.

It has been stated that the cotton manufacture has existed in England for three centuries, for the making of cottons at Manchester and Bolton is spoken of in the years 1520 and 1552; but there is undoubted evidence that the "cottons" of Manchester, like the Kendal and Welsh "cottons" of the present day, were a coarse kind of "woollens." The exact period of the introduction of the cotton manufacture into England is unknown, but

\* History of the Cotton Manufacture in Great Britain. By E. Baines, jun., Esq.

cotton-wool, for the purpose of making candlewicks, was imported as early as 1298, and from the Levant frequently at the beginning of the 16th century. Though no mention earlier than 1641 has been found of the true cotton manufacture, Mr. Baines is of opinion that the art was imported from Flanders by the crowd of Protestant artisans who fled from Antwerp in 1585, some of whom settled in Manchester, and were patronized by the clergy of its church. In 1641 the manufacture seems to have been well established at Manchester, for several kinds of cotton goods were supplied for the home as well as for the foreign market. About 1739 and 1740, East Indian yarns, we learn, were commonly used for the finer kinds of goods, and "up to the year 1760, the machines employed were nearly as simple as those of India." In 1766, the annual value of the cottons made was estimated at £600,000.

But at this period a rapid increase was about to take place, from the numerous happy inventions which were to abridge labor and multiply produce. In 1738 Wyatt and Paul took out a patent for spinning by rollers; thirty years later, Arkwright perfected a similar machine; carding by cylinders was invented by Paul in 1748, and from 1764 to 1767, Hargreaves completed the spinning-jenny. When these several machines were invented, yarns could be supplied in any quantity and of improved quality, so that weavers could obtain as much as they required and at a reasonable price, and manufacturers could use warps of cotton; for up to about the year 1773 linen yarn was used as the warp for nearly all cotton goods in this country. About this time, the imitation of Indian calicoes was successfully attempted, and "Blackburn became the principal mart for that description of goods" which "now constitutes by far the largest branch of the manufacture." (*Baines*, l. c., p. 332.) The machines hitherto invented not being adapted for the finer kinds of yarn, the *mule*-jenny was invented and completed by Crompton in 1779.

Attempts were made as early as 1780, both in Lancashire and Glasgow, to manufacture the more delicate and beautiful muslins of India, with *weft* spun by the jenny; but the "attempt failed, owing to the coarseness of the yarn. Even with Indian *weft*, muslins could not be made to compete with those of the East. But when the *mule* was brought into general use in 1785, both *weft* and *warp* were produced in this country sufficiently fine for muslins," and they soon "so completely succeeded as to banish all fear of the competition of Indian goods." In this year Arkwright's machines were thrown open to the public. Though invented by others, they owed their perfection to his finishing hand. The astonishing extension of the manufacture which immediately followed, showed that the nullification of the patent was a great national advantage.

Water was early substituted for hand-power in turning the machines. This was, in its turn, supplanted by the all-pervading agency of steam, and the factory system became, by degrees, established in England.

Hitherto the cotton manufacture had been carried on almost entirely in the houses of the workmen, as it still is in India, and has been from the remotest period. The series of ingenious inventions seem to have reached their culminating point in the self-acting mule, which seems a thing instinct with life—drawing out, twisting, and winding-up many thousand threads with infallible precision and unfailing strength. But the cotton manufacture would necessarily have been brought to a check, from the difficulty of training hands fast enough to weave all the cotton that was spun into thread. But the invention of the power-loom by Dr. E. Cartwright, not himself a mechanic or a manufacturer, overcame even this difficulty, and the only impediment then experienced was, from the necessity of frequently stopping the machinery, in order to dress the warp with starch.\* This was at first effected by a dressing-machine, and now by an improved sizing apparatus. Every difficulty, as it occurred, was overcome, and each then assisted in still further extending, and, at the same time, cheapening the cotton manufacture, and thus magnifying the power and prosperity of Great Britain; at the same time inflicting disastrous consequences on even so anciently established and apparently perfect a manufacture as that of the calicoes and muslins of India. So early as 1793 we find a Select Committee of the Court of Directors of the East India Company upon the subject of the cotton manufacture, stating that "every shop offers British muslins for sale, equal in appearance, and of more elegant patterns than those of India, for one-fourth, or perhaps more than one-third, less in price."

Having thus taken a cursory view of the history of the manufacture in this country, we may briefly notice the different operations to which the cotton is subjected, and, for this purpose, we shall use Mr. Baines's words: "Let us briefly review the different processes through which the cotton goes, in its conversion into cloth, all of which are performed in many of the large spinning and weaving mills. The cotton is brought to the mill in bags, just as it is received from America, Egypt, or India, and is then stowed in warehouses, being arranged accord-

\* "The consumption of flour in the cotton manufacture is estimated at not less than 42,301,584 lbs. a year, or 215,824 barrels (of 196 lbs.) or 177,256 loads (of 240 lbs. each.)"—*Burn's Commercial Glance for 1832*. "Bengal flour (then), lately introduced into this country, is found to answer well for dressing."—*E. Baines*. "If 2½ oz. of flour be allowed for sizing each pound of twist yarn, it will take 28,437,500 lbs. of flour, or 118,500 packs, or 79,000 quarters of wheat per annum; being nearly ¼ per cent., or 1-200th part of the whole wheat consumed in the United Kingdom."—*J. Baynes*.



ing to the countries from which it may have come. It is passed through the *willow*, the *scutching-machine*, and the *spreading-machine*, in order to be opened, cleaned, and evenly spread. By the *carding-engine* the fibres are combed out, and laid parallel to each other; and the fleece is compressed into a sliver. The sliver is repeatedly drawn and doubled in the *drawing-frame*, more perfectly to straighten the fibres, and to equalize the grist. The *roving-frame*, by rollers and spindles, produces a coarse and loose thread, which the *mule* or *throstle* spins into yarn. To make the warp, the twist is transferred from cops to bobbins, by the *winding-machine*, and from the bobbins at the *warping-mill* to a cylindrical beam. This beam being taken to the *dressing-machine*, the warp is sized, dressed, and wound upon the weaving-beam. The latter is then placed in the *power-loom*, by which machine the *shuttle*, being provided with cops of weft, the cloth is woven."—(*Baines*, l. c., p. 243.) It is obvious that if the fibre, or staple, as it is called, of different cottons vary in length or in strength, some may be able to undergo this rough treatment, while others may escape from it, and yet be well suited to the delicate fingering of the human machine.

## § 2. IMPORTS OF COTTON INTO GREAT BRITAIN.

Every difficulty that has occurred has been successively overcome; but one great difficulty still remains, that is, a regular supply of the raw material, not only at moderate prices, but in annually increasing quantities. Mr. J. Baynes, in 1846, calculated that "the consumption of cotton, for the last thirty years, has increased at the compound ratio of six per cent. each year, thereby doubling itself every twelve years." The supply of cotton ought, therefore, to continue to increase regularly, in order to keep the manufacturing population in full and healthy employment. This great object, it appears to us, can only be effected by multiplying the sources, and having so extensive a basis of supply as to counterbalance any local peculiarities of seasons, and to make the annual increase of several places keep pace with the annually increasing demand. Before proceeding to consider the capabilities of different countries to meet, not only the ordinary, but this constantly increasing consumption, it will be instructive to take a cursory view of the way in which the present enormous and comparatively sudden demand has hitherto been met.

Though we have notices of the import of cotton in small quantities at earlier periods, in the year 1697 it amounted only, to about two millions of pounds. In 1775, the average import was only four times what it had been in the beginning of the century, and chiefly from the Mediterranean and Levant. In

the year 1786, the quantity imported amounted to 19,475,025 pounds, in the following proportions, from—

British West Indies.....	5,800,000
French and Spanish Colonies.....	5,500,000
Dutch.....	1,600,000
Portuguese.....	2,000,000
Smyrna and Turkey.....	5,000,000
Total.....	19,900,000

"The purposes for which the cotton was used, in the year 1787, are thus stated." (*Baines's Hist.*, p. 216.)

Calico and Muslins.....	11,600,000
Fustians.....	6,000,000
Mixtures with Silk and Linen.....	2,000,000
Hosiery.....	1,500,000
Candle-wicks.....	1,500,000
Total.....	22,600,000

The first notice we have of cotton being imported from India is in 1783, when 114,133 pounds were obtained from thence; but in the year 1790, as much as 422,207 pounds, in consequence of an order from the Court of Directors of the East India Company. The export of cotton from the United States was little thought of at this period; for in 1792, Mr. Jay, the American negotiator of a commercial treaty between the United States of North America and Great Britain, stipulated that no cotton should be imported into the latter from the former; the object being to prohibit, in American vessels from the United States, such articles as they had previously imported from the West Indies. But small quantities of the short staple cotton had, previous to this, been grown in North America.

In 1784, an American ship, which imported 8 bags of cotton into Liverpool, was seized, on the ground that "so much cotton could not be the produce of the United States." (*Macgregor's Commercial Statistics*, vol. iii., p. 453.) In 1790, 81 bags were exported to Europe from the United States. The total of the imports into this country in that year amounted to 31,447,605 pounds, and increased in 1800 to 56,010,732 pounds. Though the import increased so much at the end of the century, it did not materially increase for the next fourteen years—being on an average, 66 millions of pounds annually, until the conclusion of the war in 1814. In 1815, the import amounted to 100 millions of pounds. Subsequent to this period, the increase has not only been rapid, but most extraordinary, as may be seen in the average for periods of five years.

		Average Increase.
From 1815 to 1819.....	118,267,611 lbs.	
" 1820 to 1824.....	152,201,829 "	33,934,218 lbs.
" 1825 to 1829.....	205,665,011 "	53,463,182 "
" 1830 to 1834.....	280,918,323 "	75,253,815 "
" 1835 to 1839.....	415,039,185 "	134,120,350 "
" 1840 to 1844.....	586,507,757 "	171,468,572 "
" 1845 to 1849.....	629,144,967 "	43,637,210 "

The author is indebted to the kindness of G. R. Porter, Esq., of the Board of Trade, for informing him that the imports from all countries have been, for the year 1847, 474,707,615; for 1848, 713,020,161; and for 1849, 775,469,000 lbs.

In the year 1846, when Mr. J. Baynes made his calculations, and when there was a deficiency of cotton, in comparison with the consumption, he said: "If the consumption of cotton continues to increase in the same ratio which it has done during the last twelve years—all other things being the same—the cotton required twelve years hence, say for the year 1858, will be—

Great Britain.....	3,200,000 bales.	To be supplied—	
Continent.....	1,656,000 "	From United States....	5,055,000 bales.
United States.....	954,000 "	" other sources....	755,000 "
	5,810,000 "		5,810,000 "

or upwards of 5,000,000 of bales of cotton from the United States twelve years hence."

The latest progress of consumption and supply has not kept pace with these anticipations.

During the year 1849 there were imported—

From the United States.....	1,477,512 bales of 330 lbs.
" Brazil.....	163,445 "
" East Indies.....	182,079 "
" Egypt.....	72,727 "
" West Indies and other parts.....	9,485 "
Total.....	1,905,248 "

A manufacture employing so vast an amount of raw material must necessarily be of immense importance. In the year 1824, Mr. Huskisson considered the total value of the cotton manufacture to amount to £33,500,000. This has since been considered too high an estimate for that period. Mr. McCulloch, in the year 1833, estimated its value to be £34,000,000, and the amount of capital employed in the manufacture to amount to about the same sum; and Mr. E. Baines, who arrived at his result by a totally different process, valued it at £31,338,693 in the same year, and considered Mr. McCulloch's estimate of £34,000,000 as the amount of capital invested in the manufacture to

be very moderate. The population of the counties where the chief cotton manufactures are carried on was only 781,850 in the year 1780, but in fifty years it had increased about two millions, for it amounted to 2,753,685 in the year 1831. "The number of individuals directly employed in the manufacture, with those dependent on them for subsistence, must amount to 1,500,000," and now it is supposed to be as much as one-tenth of the population. The exports of cotton goods are valued at twenty-five millions a year, or one-half of the exports of the produce and manufactures of Great Britain, and employ 300,000 tons of shipping for freight. It is stated that, up to the year 1834, cottons to the enormous value of £570,000,000 had been sent from this country to foreign markets, thus furnishing materials for clothing to the people of almost every region of the globe, at the same time benefiting the nation itself by the production of clothing at so much less cost, and of so much better quality, than that to which the mass of the people had been accustomed.

Considering the variety of interests at stake, and the numbers of people employed, directly and indirectly, it is not surprising that any deficiency of the raw material should be contemplated with so much apprehension, not only in Lancashire, but throughout the country; and as the largest supplies come from America, so are the crops of that country looked to as signs of progressive prosperity or of approaching difficulties. The failure of the American crop in the year 1846, as in the very last season, caused a considerable rise in the price of cotton; and it was calculated that in that year an advance in price of 2*d.* a pound required an increased payment by this country of £4,000,000 sterling. In this year, the increase in price has caused many spinners and manufacturers of coarse yarns and heavy goods, either to stop their mills or to work short time, and of course to throw many of their workmen out of full and regular employment. It has been well ascertained that, "with high prices of the raw material, the present enormous production of cotton manufactures will not, and cannot, be taken off by the markets of the world."—(*Manchester Guardian*, Jan. 23, 1850.) Such being the paramount importance of a regular supply and moderate price of the raw material, we cannot but expect that the enlightened Government of this country must have been assured that such methods as were appropriate to its various colonies had been adopted for extending this supply; and that the Directors of the East India Company cannot but have promoted the culture of cotton in the magnificent empire intrusted to their sway. Merchants and manufacturers, also, so keenly alive to what is not only for their own interest, but for the benefit of all, must individually and collectively have concerted such measures



as were suitable to the different natures and habits, as well as to the different states of civilization of the several nations of the globe. They, better than any other class, know that even commerce, though it never flourishes more than when left free and unshackled, yet in many situations would never have existed if it had not in a measure been forced, by the more civilized taking to those who are less so, the produce of their skill, to exchange for the rude product of some distant land. Of nations possessing a soil and climate fitted for such a production, some require only to be informed of, others to be induced to do, what is obviously for their own benefit.

#### Art. XII.—COMMERCE OF LAKE PONTCHARTRAIN.—NEW-ORLEANS AND MOBILE RAILROAD.

THE business and income will be derived from the transportation of *passengers, both way and through, and of way and through freight.*

1st. *Trough Travel.*—An inspection of the map of the United States, showing the location of the Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad and its connections, accompanying this report, will demonstrate its great importance as a thoroughfare for travel. At its eastern terminus, at Mobile, it will connect with the "Mobile and Ohio," the "Mobile and Girard," and by this, with "Mobile and Selma," and "Alabama and Tennessee," and the "Air Line, Savannah and Albany" Railroads, and by them it will be placed in connection with all the railroads through the Southern, Middle, Western, Northern and New-England States. At its western terminus at New-Orleans, it will be united to the New-Orleans and Opelousas Railroad, and by it with the railways of Texas and the Great Pacific line. Such is its admirable location, that it presents the *shortest and most expeditious* route for travel and the United States mail between Texas and New-Orleans, and all that section of the United States comprising nearly all of Alabama, East Tennessee, and all of Georgia, Florida, South Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, New-Jersey, New-England States, and large portions of New-York and Pennsylvania, a section containing about 495,000 square miles, and a population of 12,000,000 inhabitants, according to the last census, and nearly all the principal cities of the Union.

The truth of this position is demonstrated by an inspection of the accompanying map, and the following comparisons of distances by the various roads now in operation, or in progress, and those quite certain to be built, as follows:

<i>New Orleans to Washington City, via Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad, Mobile, Selma, Knoxville, and Lynchburg</i> .....	1,123 miles.
<i>New-Orleans and Washington City, via New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad, Aberdeen, Chattanooga, Knoxville and Lynchburg</i> .....	1,228 "
Difference nearer by Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad .....	105 "

\* NOTE.—This route may be well regarded as the *Great National Trunk Line Railroad, Northeast and Southwest*, connecting the Gulf of Mexico and Texas with the Northeastern cities and the North Atlantic coast.

It commences at Portland, Me., and passes through Boston, New-York, Phila-

<i>New-Orleans to Washington City</i> , via Mobile as above.....	1,123 miles.
“ “ “ via New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad, Brandon Road, intersection of Northeast and Southwest Railroad, Chattanooga, Knoxville and Lynchburg.....	1,187 “
Difference nearer by Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad.....	64 “
<i>New-Orleans to New-York</i> , via Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad, Mobile, Selma, Knoxville, Washington City, Baltimore, and Philadelphia.....	1,346 “
<i>New-Orleans and New-York</i> , via New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern Railroad, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Dunkirk, New-York...:	1,689 “
Difference nearer by Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad.....	343 “
<i>New-Orleans to Philadelphia</i> , via Mobile, Selma, Knoxville, Washington City, &c.....	1,250 “
<i>New-Orleans to Philadelphia</i> , via New-Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern, Cincinnati, and most direct route to Philadelphia.....	1,403 “
Difference nearer by Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad.....	234 “

delphia and Baltimore, to the city of Washington. To the latter point there is an unbroken communication by railroad, running under good management.

From Washington to Alexandria, a distance of seven miles, a first-class steamboat takes the place of the car. From Alexandria to Lynchburg, Va., a distance of 174 miles, the line continues by way of the Orange and Alexandria Railroad, and its extension, all of which is in progress, and ninety miles are in running order.

From Lynchburg to the northern boundary of Tennessee by way of Abingdon, 205 miles, the line continues over the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad, 100 miles of which are in actual operation, and the work of the remainder is in course of rapid construction. From the last-named point, to Dalton, Ga., by way of Knoxville, Tenn., the line extends by the East Tennessee and Virginia Road, 130 miles long, and the E. Tennessee and Ga. Road, 111 miles long, 80 miles of which are in operation. From Dalton, Ga., the line continues to the Alabama State line, a distance of 45 miles, over a road recently chartered, and which will probably soon be put under way, as subscriptions are now being made. Thence the line continues by the Alabama and East Tennessee Railroad, 45 miles, to the Alabama and Tennessee River Road at Jacksonville. Thence the Alabama and Tennessee River Road continues the line 145 miles, to Selma, Ala. Nearly all of this road is in course of construction, 55 miles being in running order, and 70 miles being graded. From Selma to Mobile the line continues over the Mobile and Selma Road, 45 miles, and the Mobile and Girard Road, 100 miles long. The former has only recently been chartered, and the latter has subscriptions nearly sufficient to warrant its early completion from Mobile to the intersection of the Mobile and Selma Road.

From Mobile to New-Orleans, 139 miles, the Great National Line continues by the *Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad*, the subject of the present Report.

The late Annual Reports of the Railroad Companies composing the Grand National Line south of Washington, as far as Dalton, Ga., give full assurance that all that part of the line between those two points will be in operation in two years at the furthest. From Dalton southerly, a portion is now prepared for operation, and the whole can and will be in readiness, according to present plans, in three years or less.

There will be an increased stimulus to these companies to complete their roads in even less time than the above, as soon as operations are commenced upon the Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad. By referring to the map, it will be seen that this will be the most direct route possible, from the extreme northeast to the two most important cities of the South, Mobile and New-Orleans; and cannot but give promise that it will be the great national thoroughfare between the North and South.

Thus it will be seen that, following the route of the Great National Trunk Line from New-Orleans through Mobile, &c., to Portland, Maine, you have the distances at all points in favor of the Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad of 64 miles and upwards; and of course to the east and south of this line, to all the cities of the Middle and South Atlantic coast, the distances will be still more in favor of your road.

The through travel which will be thus supplied to your road, will be derived from a population of 12,000,000, north and northeast of its northern terminus, which can have intercourse with New-Orleans and Texas, in less distance and time over your road than over any other. This is certainly sufficient to establish the fact that it would receive an amount of business from this source which will not only be remunerative, but will tax its utmost capacity to accommodate. But it is proper to remark, that in a few years the State of Texas will have two or three millions of people, many of whom, by means of the Opelousas Road and its connecting lines, will be attracted over your road to the East and North, as most of this population will have left behind them kindred to the east and north of Mobile.

With all the delays and dangers attending the present mode of travel from New-Orleans to the North, it is estimated that the present human movement by the Mississippi River, the ocean steamers from New-Orleans and Mobile, and by the mail route, *via* Mobile, is about 500,000 annually. This large amount will be greatly increased when the railways north and northeast of your road, and the New-Orleans and Opelousas Railroad and its connecting lines, are completed. Not considering, however, the future travel, but such only as is known now to exist, it is moderate to suppose, from the admirable location of your line, that it will have at least one-seventh of the present amount of travel between New-Orleans and the North. This will give for through travel, 71,428 passengers each way per annum, which at \$3, not quite 3 cents per mile, will produce \$428 568.

2d. *Way Travel*.—The way travel will constitute a very important item in the business of the road, as it passes through all the watering-places on the Gulf coast usually resorted to by the citizens of New-Orleans, Mobile, and the Southern States. The permanent population of these watering-places is not large, although increasing yearly, but the summer resort for the last two years is estimated on good authority to have been as follows:

At Bay St. Louis.....	5,000
Pass Christian.....	5,000
Mississippi City.....	1,500
Biloxi.....	6,000
Ocean Springs.....	1,500
East and West Pascagoula.....	1,000

Total floating population..... 20,000

In addition to these, there are scattered along the Gulf coast about 1,000 inhabitants. These, with the local population of the counties which trade with New-Orleans and Mobile, and which will use the New-Orleans and Mobile Railroad, to greater advantage than any other, estimated, according to the census of 1850, at 19,000, would make a local population of 20,000 tributary to the road. With the railroad, this floating and resident population will greatly increase. Estimating that the present floating population (20,000) makes on an average three trips per annum, which, considering its migratory character, must be regarded as a moderate calculation, and that one in every five of the local population makes two trips per annum, the income from the *way* travel will be as follows:—

60,000 passengers each way, (floating population), at \$2.....	\$240,000
8,000 " " (resident population), at \$2.....	32,000

Total way travel per annum..... \$272,000

3d. *Way Freight*.—The way freight will consist principally of lumber, &c., bricks and sand, &c., and miscellaneous articles, such as charcoal, hides, horned cattle, &c., supplied by the country bordering on the Gulf of Mexico from the Rigolets to Tampa Bay, and on the Pearl and Pascagoula Rivers, which drain an area of about 22,400 square miles.

Statement No. 1, showing the yearly commerce of Lake Pontchartrain, and Statement No. 2, showing the receipts from the lake by the new basin, in the Appendix to this Report, will give an idea of the large amount of this trade already developed by the present means of transportation, and the insecure and uncertain navigation of the lake for want of harbors.

The country bordering on the Gulf and the rivers yield an unlimited supply of lumber and firewood, tar, pitch, and turpentine, charcoal, bricks, sand, and shells, all of which are largely consumed at New-Orleans and Mobile. In addition to these articles, should be mentioned the produce of gardens and the dairy, for the supply of New-Orleans and Mobile, and the necessary supplies of provisions, groceries, dry goods, &c., consumed by the floating and resident population.

It may be said that nearly all of this way freight will be transported by water to its points of consumption. As a general proposition, it will be admitted that, all things being equal, water transportation is cheaper than railroad; but in this instance, where the water navigation is obstructed, the water shallow, and where there are no safe harbors, with one exception in Pass Great Rigolets, where freight, if insured, is subject to high rates, in addition to canal tolls, or to railway charges and transshipment, it must be admitted that a railway which does its own insurance, and which can be maintained and made to yield a lucrative revenue from its passenger traffic alone, and whose freight traffic will therefore be so much *surplus* profit over and above actual cost of transportation, and which can deliver the articles of consumption almost at the doors of the consumers, over a line both *straight and level*, must be able to transport freight at such low rates, and with a certainty, safety, and dispatch, as to draw from the water transit a large amount of business. At all events, experience has demonstrated such to be the case. The Hudson River Railroad, built alongside of the *safest and cheapest river navigation of this country*, only five miles shorter than the river, has obtained a very large freight traffic, which is constantly increasing with each succeeding year. The passenger receipts of this road for the year 1853, were \$935,627, and freight receipts were \$312,000, and this, too, in competition not only with the Hudson River, but with another railroad, the Harlem, at a distance not exceeding fifteen miles, and making the same connections, and competing for the same trade.

Another example is the New-York and New-Haven Railroad, running parallel to, and in competition with, the water transportation of Long Island Sound.

Again, the *two* roads leading from Boston to Portland, the Eastern, and Boston and Maine Railroads, and the Lake Shore lines north and south of Lake Erie, are analogous cases, competing as they do with cheap water navigation, and all of which are doing a lucrative freight business.

The line of railways running alongside of the Great Erie Canal might also be instanced as a case in point.

The number of tons transported on the canals of New-York in 1853, was 4,247,000, and on the railroads alongside, 1,200,000.

Railroads will always have preference over water routes, for all articles the value of which depends, to a considerable extent, upon the *speed* with which they are moved—such as vegetables, fruits, live stock, fresh provisions, butter, cheese, &c.; and also for high-priced goods, the cost of transportation of which bears but a small proportion to their value. The ease and rapidity with which orders for such articles can be executed by railroads, has given



to these works a monopoly of their carriage. Such is the result which followed the opening of the railroad parallel to the Erie Canal, already referred to. The latter continues to retain most of the flour, lumber, minerals, &c., while the more valuable, and all perishable freight, falls to the share of the road.

Referring to Statements 1 and 2 in the Appendix, it will be seen that the total annual tonnage employed on Lake Pontchartrain, is 577,980 tons. Of this amount, the proportion engaged in the through business between New-Orleans and Mobile is 280,000; the remainder, 297,980 tons, in the *way* business. Estimating that three-fourths of this tonnage (297,980) is employed in the business of that portion of the country, and of the Gulf coast tributary to the road, and that the amount of freight is three-fourths of the tonnage, and that only one-fourth of the freight will be transported by the railroad, and three-fourths by water, the amount of way freight for the road will be 41,903 tons; which transported say one-half distance of the road, at 3 cents per ton per mile, will yield \$87,367.

*Through Freight.*—The estimate for the *through* freight will be made in the same manner as for *way* freight. The annual tonnage engaged in the through business between New-Orleans and Mobile, as has been before stated, is about 280,000 tons per annum. Estimating that the net amount of freight transported is three-fourths of this tonnage, and that the railroad will only perform one-fourth of the business done on the water, the amount of the through freight business for the railroad per annum, will be 52,500 tons per annum, transported the whole length of the road, 139 miles, at 2½ cents per ton per mile, \$164,193.

Statement No. 3 in the Appendix shows the amount and the articles composing the imports into Mobile for several years—nearly all of which are received from New-Orleans, and will give an idea of the amount of through freight.

Recapitulating the foregoing results, and we have the following

ESTIMATE OF THE BUSINESS AND INCOME OF THE MOBILE AND NEW-ORLEANS RAILROAD.

1. <i>Through Travel.</i> —71,428 through passengers each way, at \$3, (not quite three cents per mile,).....	\$428,568
2. <i>Way Travel.</i> —60,000 passengers each way, (floating population,) at \$2.....	240,000
8,000 passengers each way, (resident population,) at \$2.....	32,000
3. <i>Way Freight.</i> —41,903 tons, transported one-half distance of the road, at 3 cents per mile.....	87,367
4. <i>Through Freight.</i> —52,500 tons, transported the whole length of the road, at 2½ cents per mile.....	164,193
5. Transportation of the United States Mail, 139 miles, at \$250 per mile.....	34,750
Total estimated receipts.....	\$986,878
Deduct expenses, 54 per cent.....	532,914
Net income.....	\$453,964
Or more than ten per cent. on \$4,500,000.	

It will be observed that the expenses have been estimated at 54 per cent of the receipts. The expenses of the average of the Southern roads do not exceed 40 per cent. of their receipts, from the absence of frost and cheapness of fuel. The route of the Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad possesses all the favorable characteristics of the best Southern routes, with the exception of the *bridges*. It is for the purpose of the maintenance of these

that a much larger than the usual allowance is made for expenses, and which, it is believed, will be ample for its objects.

It is apparent, from the foregoing remarks, that there can be no doubt the Mobile and New-Orleans Railroad will be a good paying road as soon as it is completed. It may be further remarked that its stock will be permanently valuable, because it occupies a route which never can be superseded by any shorter or more direct line.

## STATEMENT No. 1.

## COMMERCE OF LAKE PONTCHARTRAIN.

The following statement exhibits the yearly commerce of Lake Pontchartrain :—

At the New Canal, the tonnage employed amounts to about 250,000 tons, which embraces steamers, and every other description of craft engaged in the transportation of provisions, dry goods, groceries, passengers, &c., outward, and cotton, lumber, brick, fire wood, sand, shells, passengers, &c., inward.

At the Old Canal and Bayou, the business amounts to about 10,000 tons.

At the harbor of the Pontchartrain Railroad, there are employed the following steamers, constituting the mail line :—The Florida, the California, the Oregon, and the James L. Day, one of which arrives and departs daily.

The average tonnage of these boats is 540 tons, making yearly.....	197,100 tons.
Also the steamers Mobile and St. Charles, of the Canal Line, which arrive and depart twice a week each, with an average tonnage each trip of 350 tons, making yearly, 72,800 ..	"
Also the steamer Lenora, plying to Covington, Madisonville and Mandeville, making four trips per week, tonnage 160 tons, making yearly.....	33,280 "
And the steamer M. A. Moore, of 300 tons, plying to Pearl river, making a trip every two weeks, making yearly.....	4,800 "

Total yearly tonnage of steamers.....	307,980 "
The tonnage of schooners plying in various directions to and from the harbor of the Pontchartrain Railroad amounts, per year, to about.....	10,000 "

Total tonnage of every description from the Railroad harbor.....	317,980 "
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And sum total of tonnage for the Lake, as per foregoing schedule, 577,980 tons.—*New-Orleans Commercial Bulletin.*

## STATEMENT No. 2.

## RECEIPTS FROM THE LAKE, BY THE NEW BASIN.

	1852-1853.	1851-1852.		1852-1853.	1851-1852.
Cotton, bales.....	32,613	40,650	Molasses, bbls....	140	603
Sugar, hhds.....	323	870			

## LUMBER, &amp;C.

Yellow pine, cypress, &c., feet.....	40,163,000	30,370,000	Cypress pickets.....	2,500	1,300
Shingles.....	3,449,000	1,844,000	Cypress clapboards.....	62,500	165,000
Laths.....	2,587,000	5,090,000	Firewood, oak, ash, and pitch pine, cords.....	34,412	28,206
Staves.....	1,870,000	150,000	Cedar logs.....	200	240
Sash and doors, pairs.....	15,335	13,800	Buckets, doz.....	—	—
White oak knees.....	570	1,165			

## NAVAL STORES.

Tar, bbls.....	7,955	1,872	Turpentine, bbls.....	1,536	2,451
Tar, kegs.....	13,374	12,066	Rosin, bbls.....	11,419	11,715

## BRICKS, SAND, &amp;C.

Brick, (Lake,).....	17,549,000	10,339,000	Shells, bbls.....	45,530	27,000
Sand, bbls.....	197,550	194,850			

## MISCELLANEOUS.

Charcoal, bbls.....	138,800	114,300	Horned cattle.....	1,280	123
Hides.....	3,775	3,024	Cotton gins.....	146	319
Moss, bales.....	110	30	Domestics, bales.....	1,155	1,478
Florida leaf tobacco, boxes.....	15	644			

## STATEMENT No. 3.

## COMPARATIVE VIEW OF IMPORTS INTO MOBILE.

ARTICLES.	1852-53.	51-52.	50-51.	49-50.	48-49.	47-48.
Haggings, pieces.....	22,327	21,360	24,662	25,252	20,780	28,770
Bale rope, coils.....	24,107	17,933	26,572	22,265	27,654	28,032
Bacon, hhds.....	13,227	13,288	16,578	9,483	5,981	12,622
Coffee, bags.....	34,503	29,027	26,408	21,790	22,662	24,500
Candles, boxes.....						
Flour, bbls.....	64,444	66,756	94,910	67,668	54,411	58,989
Grain, Corn, sack.....	92,104	109,615	112,980	24,314	40,140	21,891
Oats, sack.....	48,395	23,052	12,408	11,123	17,105	13,898
Hay, bales.....	22,730	29,085	24,459	19,409	17,536	8,936
Lard, kegs.....	22,389	23,723	19,670	10,582	7,843	8,250
Lime, bbls.....	21,252	22,109	26,075	18,669	15,781	12,500
Molasses, bbls.....	19,681	18,691	18,513	17,202	12,793	17,842
Potatoes, Irish, bbls.....	21,344	24,072	16,734	17,993	17,679	18,257
Pork, bbls.....	15,841	18,374	22,259	7,517	5,490	12,991
Rice, tierces.....	1,399	1,766	1,748	1,363	1,012	925
Sugar, hhds.....	8,352	7,198	6,567	7,082	5,667	6,822
Salt, sacks.....	123,266	125,000	130,514	131,108	156,107	88,898
Whiskey, bbls.....	21,754	19,013	25,806	19,077	22,991	20,914

## Art. XIII.—THE SOUTHERN COMMERCIAL CONVENTION.

BEFORE the adjournment of this body, which convened at Charleston, South Carolina, and represented most of the Southern and Southwestern States, a resolution was adopted devolving upon a committee the duty of meeting and corresponding in the recess, and reporting at the next annual meeting, on the second Monday of January, 1855, upon the various matters embraced within the scope of the Convention. The resolution is annexed:—

*Resolved*, That a committee of three from each State represented in the Convention be appointed by the Convention for the purpose of obtaining the most reliable statistical information as to the number and location of manufactories and mines in the States represented in this body; the amount of capital invested in the several establishments; the amount of income and disbursements; the number of hands (operatives) employed, free and slave, and amount of raw material consumed; the quantity and quality of the manufactured articles produced; the prices at which they are furnished; the markets in which they are chiefly sold; and other items of information tending to show the present condition and extent of our manufacturing interest; and that said Committee furnish to the Secretary of the Convention a report of their investigations, to be laid by him before the next meeting of the Convention; and that it be the duty of said committee to address the people of the States represented in this Convention, and to urge the importance of action in the Legislatures thereof, in favor of Education, of Manufactures, of Ship-building, of Direct Trade, and of Mining; and that it be the duty of the Committee to collect and present at the next meeting of the Convention statistics and other useful information relating to the Internal Improvements of the several States, their Industrial Resources, their Mineral Treasures, their Manufacturing Facilities, and their Capacities for Trade and Commerce; together with a statement in which shall be set forth the names and lengths of the several Railways, their cost, and the increased value which has been imparted to lands and other property in consequence of such improvements; to report the statistics on the subject of Milling and the Lumber Trade as carried on by the several States represented, as well also as the Statistics of Agriculture in the same States.

Under the resolution the following Committee was appointed:—

J. D. B. DeBow, of Louisiana, Chairman; Wm. Crichton, Thos. T. Hutchins, and John F. Dent, of Maryland; Thos. Wallace, Wm. H. Macfarland, and Mordcai Cooke, of Virginia; Dr. J. H. Gibbon, E. J. Hale, and James Patton, of North Carolina; W. B. Johnson, Alex. Melroe,

and Jos. Walker, of South Carolina; Thomas C. Nesbit, Nathan C. Monroe, and John J. Gresham, of Georgia; Benj. F. Whitner, Columbus Drew, and C. A. Price, of Florida; Dr. Charles H. Patton, Daniel Pratt, and Alfred Battle, of Alabama; J. W. Clapp, And. Matthews, and P. A. Iredell, of Mississippi; J. Forstall and A. Dimitry, of Louisiana; Albert Pike, of Arkansas; Dr. Alex. McCall, Samuel Morgan, and A. W. Van Liew, of Tennessee; A. L. Shotwell, T. S. Kennedy, and R. D. P. Standeford, of Kentucky; John S. Rhea, of Texas; James M. Clendennin and W. H. Blackwood, of Missouri; Hamilton Smith, of Indiana.

W. C. Dawson, Free's Convention.

WILMOT G. DESSAUSURE, of S. C., Secretary.

In order to secure the better performance of the duties of the committee by a division of its labors, the following sub-committees are nominated by the chairman. Communications in relation to the business of the General Committee may be addressed to the undersigned at Washington, D. C., who will cheerfully co-operate with the several sub-committees.

J. D. B. DEBOW, Chairman.

*Committee on Internal Improvements.*—A. Pike, of Ark., Chairman; W. H. Macfarland, of Virginia; A. McBees, of South Carolina; A. W. Van Liew, of Tennessee; B. D. Sandeford, of Kentucky; W. H. Blackwood, of Missouri.

*Committee on Industrial Resources and Direct Trade.*—J. W. Clapp, of Mississippi, Chairman; W. Crichton, of Maryland; N. C. Monroe, of Georgia; C. A. Price, of Florida; Dr. Chas. H. Patton, of Alabama; A. L. Shotwell, of Kentucky; T. A. Iredell, of Mississippi; Thos. Wallace, of Virginia.

*Committee on Agriculture.*—E. J. Forstall, of Louisiana, Chairman; T. T. Hutchins, of Maryland; J. A. Patton, of North Carolina; M. Cooke, of Virginia; W. B. Johnson, of South Carolina; C. Drew, of Florida; A. Battle, of Alabama; A. Matthews, of Mississippi; J. S. Rhea, of Texas; J. M. Clendennin, of Missouri.

*Committee on Manufactures and Mining.*—Hamilton Smith, of Indiana, Chairman; A. F. Dent, of Maryland; E. D. Hale, of North Carolina; J. Walker, of South Carolina; J. J. Gresham of Georgia; D. Pratt, of Alabama; S. Morgan, of Tennessee; T. S. Kennedy, of Kentucky.

*Committee on Education.*—A. Dimitry, of Louisiana, Chairman; Dr. J. H. Gibbon, of North Carolina; T. C. Nesbit, of Georgia; B. F. Whitner, of Florida; Dr. A. McCall, of Tennessee.

## NOTES.

We call attention in our advertising pages to the card of the Nashville University and the University of Louisiana, both Institutions being in a very flourishing condition. We perceive that the Literary Department of the Nashville University will be reopened in October. A Law School will at the same time be commenced. The Medical Department, during its brief existence of three years, has met with unexampled success, being now, in point of numbers, the fifth or sixth school in the Union. The healthiness, centrality, and intelligence of Nashville, together with the established reputation of its University, will soon render it one of the most noted seats of learning in the United States.

We have received the very able and polished Address of the Hon. A. V. Brown, of Tennessee, before the University of North Carolina, at Chapel Hill, and will refer to it again.

We have also received the Report of the Mercantile Library Association of Cincinnati for 1854, which evidences a condition of great prosperity. No institution in the Union has higher claims than this.

*Lectures on the True, Beautiful, and Good.* New-York: D. Appleton & Co. 1854. By M. V. Cousin; translated by O. W. Wight.—Of M. Cousin the *Edinburgh Review* speaks as "a writer whose pointed periods have touched the chords of modern society, and thrilled through the minds of thousands in almost every quarter of the civilized world."

The following works were received too late for notice in this number, but will be attended to in the next:—I. Poems by Mr. Thomas Wyatt, 1 vol.; II. Poems of the Earl of Surrey, 1 vol.; III. Poems of Campbell, 1 vol.

These works belong to Little, Brown & Co.'s admirable Series of the British Poets, and are received through Frank Taylor.

*Na Motu; or, Reef-Rovings in the South Seas*, by Edward T. Perkins. New-York: Putney & Russell. 1854.

*Atherton, and other Tales*, by Mary Russell Mitford. Boston: Ticknor & Fields. Washington: Taylor & Maury.



# UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.

## MEDICAL DEPARTMENT.

The Annual Course of Lectures in this Department will commence on MONDAY, November 13, and will terminate in the ensuing March.

James Jones, M. D., Professor of Practice of Medicine.  
 J. L. Riddell, M. D., Professor of Chemistry  
 Warren Stone, M. D., Professor of Surgery.  
 A. H. Cenas, M. D., Professor of Obstetrics.  
 A. J. Wedderburn, M. D., Professor of Anatomy.  
 Gustavus A. Nott, M. D., Professor of Materia Medica.  
 Thomas Hunt, M. D., Professor of Physiology and Pathology.  
 Cornelius C. Baird, M. D., } Demonstrators of Anatomy.  
 Samuel P. Chopplin, M. D., }

The rooms for Dissecting will be open on the Third Monday in October.

The Faculty are Visiting Physicians and Surgeons of the Charity Hospital, and attend this Institution from November to April.

The Students accompany the Professors in their visits, and, free of expense, enjoy extraordinary practical advantages.

There are, during the Session, about eight hundred persons prescribed for daily.

In 1853, the number of patients was thirteen thousand seven hundred and fifty-nine.

Sep., 54, 1 yr.

THOMAS HUNT, M. D., *Dean.*

## THE GREAT FAMILY AND PLANTATION-MEDICINE! WRIGHT'S INDIAN VEGETABLE PILLS.

The great and increasing sale of this excellent medicine proves the high estimation in which it is held by the entire community. In the South and Southwest it is now fully appreciated. Entirely a vegetable composition, its use is unattended by the serious injury consequent upon mineral remedies, which, even if they do sometimes relieve one disease, invariably produce half a dozen others in its place, rendering it more difficult to recover from the effects of the medicine, than from the disease for which it was taken.

In the fevers and other complaints incident to southern and southwestern life, Wright's Indian Vegetable Pills are unsurpassed in efficacy. They have cured YELLOW FEVER after every other remedy had failed. They have broken up the AGUE and BILIOUS FEVER in all their forms. They are thoroughly anti-bilious in their action: powerful for good, and yet innocent of evil.

If resorted to in time this medicine will be found to answer all the requirements of the family and Plantation. Either ADULTS or CHILDREN afflicted with any of the prevalent disorders will find a dose or two of this medicine thoroughly efficacious—not only curing the immediate sickness, but PURIFYING the BLOOD, AIDING the CIRCULATION and IMPROVING the general health.

Space will not allow of the introduction of the numerous testimonials received by the proprietor. He therefore subjoins only two or three of them, the first of which was received from Vera Cruz, in 1849, while the Yellow Fever was quite prevalent, and is signed, as will be seen, by the HIGHEST MEDICAL AUTHORITIES of that city.

### TRANSLATION.

We, the undersigned, licensed Physicians in and for the city of Vera Cruz, do hereby certify, that we have used **Dr. W. Wright's Indian Vegetable Pills**, bought of Mr. Felix Rovira, Agent in this city, and having applied said Pills to cure the different diseases for which they are recommended by Dr. Wright, we have found them in every respect satisfactory, and we therefore recommend their use to every person in the republic who may be suffering from any of the maladies for which they are recommended by their inventor.—And in order that the present certificate may be used as convenient to the parties, we have signed it in Vera Cruz, this 10th day of August, 1849.

(Signed,)

GEORGE GAIDAN.

MANUEL HOVAD.

FORBES' TOWN, Butte Co., California, March 26th, 1854.

Sir:—I take upon me to forward you a few lines, to let you know that I have been using your very effective medicine for over one year. What the name of my complaint is I cannot say, but your Pills have made a very great alteration in my outward appearance, and my inward feeling is most pleasant to what it was. I had had health for a considerable time, and had tried a great many remedies, but all proved to have no effect; in fact, your Pills are the only medicine that I have ever found equal to recommendations. I can assure you that I value them more than the gold I am digging, and trust that I shall always have some of them beside me.

I remain, your well-wisher,

JAMES HALKET.

PITTSBURGH, Pa., April 29, 1854, 410 Liberty Street.

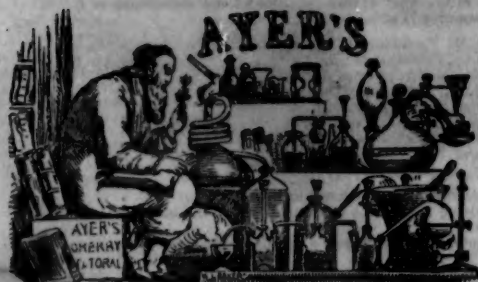
Dear Sir:—I feel much pleasure in testifying to the excellence of your *Indian Vegetable Pills* as a cure and preventive of Diarrhoea. Last year I suffered very severely during many weeks from this horrible disease, being all the time under the care of physicians, and constantly taking medicine, from which I derived no benefit. At last I was induced to take a dose of your Vegetable Pills, and found four Pills not only effect an entire cure, but so radically to change my system that I have never been troubled with the complaint since—my general health being so good that all my friends remark upon the improvement.

Yours, respectfully,

JOHN THOMPSON.

To Dr. WM. WRIGHT, 169 Race St., Philad'a, Pa.

The genuine may be had of J. WRIGHT & Co., Chartres Street, and A. BRONXEM, 74 Camp Street, New Orleans; M. BOULEMET, Mobile; HAVILAND, HARROL & Co., Charleston; and by the principal dealers throughout the United States and Canada. Principal office, to which all communications must be addressed, 9 Race Street, Philadelphia.



## CHERRY PECTORAL,

For the rapid Cure of  
**COUGHS, COLDS, HOARSENESS,  
 BRONCHITIS, WHOOPING-COUGH,  
 CROUP, ASTHMA, AND  
 CONSUMPTION.**

Among the numerous discoveries Science has made in this generation to facilitate the business of life, increase its enjoyment, and even prolong the term of human existence, none can be named of more real value to mankind than this contribution of Chemistry to the Healing Art. A vast trial of its virtues throughout this broad country, has proven beyond a doubt, that no medicine or combination of medicines yet known, can so surely control and cure the numerous varieties of pulmonary disease which have hitherto swept from our midst thousands and thousands every year. Indeed, there is now abundant reason to believe a Remedy has at length been found which can be relied on, to cure the most dangerous affections of the lungs. Our space here will not permit us to publish any proportion of the cures effected by its use, but we would present the following: and refer further inquiry to my American Almanac, which the agents below named will always be pleased to furnish free, wherein are all particulars, and indisputable proof of these statements.

Office of Transportation, Laurens R. R., S. C., Aug. 4. 1853.

J. C. AYER. Dear Sir,—My little son, four years old, has just recovered from a severe attack of malignant Scarlet Fever; his throat was rotten, and every person that visited him, pronounced him a dead child. Having used your CHERRY PECTORAL in California in the winter of 1850, for a severe attack of Bronchitis with entire success, I was induced to try it on my little boy. I gave him a teaspoonful every three hours, commencing in the morning, and by ten o'clock at night, I found a decided change for the better; and after three days use, he was able to eat or drink without pain.

Its use in the above named disease will save many a child from a premature grave, and relieve the anxiety of many a fond parent. For all affections of the Throat and Lungs, I believe it the best medicine extant. A feeling of the deepest gratitude prompts me in addressing you these lines;—but for your important discovery, my little boy would now have been in another world.

I am yours, with great respect,

J. D. POWELL, Supt. Trans., L. R. R.

Wilkesbarre, Pa., September 28, 1856.

Dr. J. C. AYER. My dear Sir,—Your medicine is much approved of by those who have used it here, and its composition is such as to insure and maintain its reputation. I invariably recommend it for pulmonary affections, as do many of our principal physicians.

I am your friend,

CHAS. STREATER, M. D.

**Prepared by J. C. AYER, Chemist, Lowell, Mass.**

Sold by J. Wright & Co., New-Orleans; P. H. McGraw, Natchez; Morris Emanuel, Vicksburg; Wright & Elder, Woodville; C. T. Mann, Yazoo City; A. J. McGill, Fort Gibson; John Fossey, Opelousas; C. de Manebert, Booth & Gurthri, Memphis, Tenn.; Jos. Tucker, Mobile; Strong and Stevenson, Knoxville, Tenn.; F. Eckstein, jun., Cincinnati; Francis, Walter & Warren, St. Louis; and by all Druggists everywhere.

## ZINC PAINTS.

**THE NEW-JERSEY ZINC COMPANY** are now manufacturing these Paints, of superior quality. Their advantages over other Paints are—

1st. They are not poisonous. Sleeping apartments, recently painted, may be occupied with impunity, and painters using these paints are not subject to the distressing maladies arising from the use of lead.

2d. Their beauty and durability. Zinc, on inside work, becomes much harder than any other paint, and is not easily soiled; is whiter than pure white lead, and as it retains its whiteness and brilliancy unaffected by bilge water, coal, or sulphurous gases, it is unrivalled as a paint for ships and steamboats. For outside use, exposed to weather or water, Zinc Paints will retain their color and preserving qualities long after other paints are destroyed.

3d. The White Zinc Paints will cover (equal weights) about two thirds more surface than pure lead—this, in connection with their greater durability, makes in the long run the cost of painting with Zinc less than half the cost of lead.

Brown and Brown Stone Color Zinc Paints, which are sold at low prices, are well adapted for painting roof, out-buildings, and all metallic surfaces, particularly iron, which they effectually protect from rusting, exposed to either heat or weather. These Paints are prepared in the same manner, and may be used in all respects like White Lead. They are for sale by many of the principal dealers in the cities and large towns of the Union, and by the Company's Agents,

**MANNING & SQUIER,**  
45 Dey-street, N. Y.

N. B.—All Paints manufactured by this Company are warranted pure.

**WICKERSHAM'S IRON WORK.**—Farm Fences, Wire Railings, Iron Bed leads, &c. The most extensive assortment of Ornamental Iron Work in the United States. **JOHN B. WICKERSHAM,** Warehouse, 312 Broadway.

Works, 57, 59, and 61 Lewis-st., New-York.

**ROBERT L. MARTIN,** No. 38 North Front-st., Philadelphia, Commission Merchant for the sale of Cotton, and Woollen Yarns and Wool. Orders for every description of Cotton and Woollen Machinery, and Steam Engines for manufacturing purposes, promptly executed.

**R. P. HOWELL,** Commission Agent, 75 and 77 Water-street, Mobile.

**PELEG BROWN & Co.,** Dealers in Foreign and Domestic Dry Goods, No. 21 St. Francis-street, Mobile.

## SALAMANDER SAFES.

**EVANS & WATSON,** No. 63 Dock-street, Philadelphia, have now on hand a large assortment of their Patent Salamander Fire and Thief Proof Safes, for Papers, Books, Jewelry, &c.

Fire-Proof Doors for Banks and Stores.

Sole Agency for Butterworth's celebrated Bank Vault and Door Locks. These Locks bid defiance to all Lock Picks, Hobbs' included.

Patent Slate-Lined Refrigerators, Water-Filters, &c.

**H. O. BREWER & Co.,** General Commission and Shipping Merchants, and Collecting Agents. Also, Dealers in Foreign and Domestic Exchanges, Mobile.

Particular attention given to the collection of notes, drafts, &c. Proceeds promptly remitted.

References.—Merchants' Bank, Boston; Philadelphia Bank, Phila.; Bank of the State of New-York, N. Y.; Merchants' Bank, Balt.; Bank of the Republic, N. Y.; Bank of Charleston, Charleston, S. C.; Mess. Center & Co., N. Y.

**TREDEGAR LOCOMOTIVE WORKS,** Richmond, Virginia. The subscribers having greatly extended their works, are prepared to execute orders promptly, for Locomotives, as well as Stationary Engines and Sugar Mills, and solicit the patronage of Railroad Companies, Planters, and all others in want of Machines.

**ANDERSON & SOUTHER.**

**CLARK, AUSTIN & SMITH,** Wholesale Booksellers, 3 Park-row and 3 Ann-street, New-York, offer to all dealers in Books and Stationery, either in large or small quantities, as varied an assortment of School, Classical, and Miscellaneous Books as there is to be found in the city of New-York, or elsewhere. Also, Blank Books, Writing and Wrapping Papers, Envelopes, &c.

**SEWING MACHINES** for sewing leather, cloth, and all fabrics, thin or thick, with a new and secure stitch made by two threads direct from spools. These machines are of so simple a construction that any one can work them, and there being no shuttle used, are not liable to get out of repair. One person with a machine will do the work of twelve, and as strong as, and far more uniform and beautiful than can be done by hand. Prices from \$60 to \$150. Descriptive pamphlets mailed upon request. **GROVER, BAKER, & Co.,** 94 Chambers-street, N. York; Haymarket-square, Boston.

**S. I. & I. I. JONES,** Auctioneers and General Commission Merchants. Also agents for the sale of Virginia manufactured Tobacco, Mobile.

## ARKANSAS AGENCY.

**WHIT. F. GREENFIELD,**

ATTORNEY AT LAW AND GENERAL LAND AGENT,

*Pine Bluff, Jefferson Co., Arkansas.*

**WILL** attend to the purchase and sale of Land, perfecting Land Titles, establishing Head Rights, locating Land Warrants, and payment of Taxes on sales.

As he is well acquainted with the country, persons who buy Land Scrip at a reduced price would do well to pay him a moderate fee for locating the same.

Land office in this town.

## CRESCENT SEEDLING STRAWBERRY.

PLANTS FOR SALE.

**THE** undersigned offers for sale a few thousands of the above celebrated variety of Strawberries, which for productiveness is unequalled by any now under cultivation.

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